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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the 1984 and 1985 meetings of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching include: "Perspectives on Proficiency: 1985"; "Developmental Stages in Functional Language Proficiency"; "Cultural Understanding, Oral Proficiency, and Study Abroad: Getting It All Together"; "Developing Functional Proficiency in Writing"; "The Proficiency-Based German Class: Experiences and Perspectives"; "The Study of Latin in American Schools: Success and Crisis"; "Foreign Language and International Studies: Past, Present, and Future"; "Curriculum Framework for Foreign Language Education in the State of Florida"; "Proficiency Guided Business Units in High School Foreign Language Classes"; "A Commercial Spanish Sequence at the Post-Secondary Level: Objectives, Curriculum, and Resources"; "The Ultimate Curriculum Guide Outline: From Philosophy to Test Items"; "Targeting the Target Language: A Teacher Reflects"; "Increasing Student Participation in the Foreign Language Class"; "Making Language Study Real: Skill Development with Authentic Language Samples"; "Trivial Pursuit in the Foreign Language Classroom"; "Reversing the Role of the Foreign Language Lab: From Practice to Presentation"; and "The Computer in the Foreign Language Classroom: 'Mogwai' or Gremlin?" (MSE)

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PERSPECTIVES ON PROFICIENCY: CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION

DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '84-'85

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REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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**REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING**

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Preface

This volume represents selected papers from the 1984 and 1985 meetings of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT). The editors wish to express their appreciation to the authors of the articles, who demonstrated such patience and perseverence during the editing and rewriting process and with the substantial delays encountered between the time of submission of manuscripts and publication of the volume. We extend our appreciation to James S. Gates, Executive Director of the SCOLT Conference, for his cooperation throughout the process. And in particular, we wish to recognize the financial support offered by Francis J. Dannerbeck, Chairman of the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures of the University of South Carolina, in the design and production of the cover graphics and printing.

T.B.F.
F.W.M., Jr.

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Introduction

T. Bruce Fryer and Frank W. Medley, Jr.
The University of South Carolina

In selecting papers for this volume, the editors have attempted to assemble a collection that would reflect the broad scope and the wide variety of topics addressed in the many sessions presented at the 1984 and 1985 conferences. In 1984, the conference theme was "Expanded Horizons: Business and Industry." The 1985 conference was structured around the theme of "Perspectives on Proficiency." Since most of the sessions both years treated one or another issue related to the development of an expanded and more global curriculum or to instructional strategies, the editors have chosen to entitle the volume *Perspectives on Proficiency: Curriculum and Instruction.*

In the Keynote Address, Dr. Arnie Shore of the Exxon Education Foundation challenges us as educators to establish for ourselves a national agenda for foreign language training and study as we determine the future directions of our discipline and guide it towards our established goals.

Maria Teresa Garretón of Chicago State University and Frank W. Medley, Jr., of the University of South Carolina offer a comprehensive comparison of the relationship between several well-known theories of cognitive psychology. This discussion of the interaction between an individual's intellectual ability and the expectations of performance in the academic setting provides a strong and comprehensive foundation upon which to base the remainder of the selected papers that treat both content and process in the learning sequence.

Gregory K. Armstrong of the University of Arkansas at Little Rock reports on a project made possible through an outside grant, wherein the University was able to interview and rate the oral abilities of a group of students who had participated in a year-abroad program in Europe.

Carolyn L. Hansen, University of South Carolina, describes a carefully structured sequence of activities that can be followed to lead students from the beginning stages of performance, where writing is used as a reinforcing activity, to the level of creative production of text in the target language.

Arthur Mosher and Margit Resch, also from the University of South Carolina, describe in detail the organization of a proficiency-based German class at their institution and call attention to the need to "honestly face up to shortcomings" that exist in goals and objectives, teaching strategies, materials, and assessment.

Gregory W. Duncan, from the Georgia Department of Education, reflects upon the state of affairs with respect to foreign languages and international studies, and argues that we need to continue to monitor and perhaps question some of the glib reasons currently being used to support the inclusion of foreign language/international studies programs in the curriculum.

In a report on the study of Latin in American schools, Richard A. LaFleur of the University of Georgia points out that the nation's public is becoming aware once again of the desirability of the inclusion of classical languages, particularly Latin, in the curriculum, and concludes that the upward trend now present could continue for some years to come.

For those teachers in states where recent legislation has been enacted that will have an effect upon foreign language study and instruction and will increase the need for well-qualified teachers, Gabriel M. Valdés of the Florida Department of Education describes the Critical Teacher Shortage Program recently established in his state. This paper provides the reader with information about the model being implemented in Florida to provide a more consistent curriculum across the state and to encourage the adoption of student performance standards for each academic program in grades nine through twelve for which credit toward high school graduation is awarded.

The 1984 SCOLT Conference expanded the horizons of foreign language educators in attendance by offering information dealing with the instruction of business language. T. Bruce Fryer describes why business terminology and concepts should be used as a source for the development of functional language proficiency for high school students. Laura J. Walker provides the curricular follow-up to these high school business units by describing the excellent commercial Spanish sequence developed at the University of Southwestern Louisiana. Cincy Saylor, Foreign Language Consultant for the State of South Carolina outlines the steps involved in developing a curriculum guide that is not dependent upon the textbook and that guarantees proof of mastery of the critical skills required in the courses.

C. Lee Bradley of Valdosta State College in Georgia reflects on the ways we have falsely tried to justify language instruction to our students and proceeds to encourage us to focus on newer approaches that emphasize the developing positive motivation toward communication with others. Estella Gahala provides a rationale and specific suggestions for encouraging increased student participation, emphasizing particularly small-group paired activities. The authentic nature of the audio materials selected for skill development is systematically described by Lynne B. Bryan of Georgia Southwestern College. She suggests that we encourage our students to develop listening comprehension and that we carefully select the materials employed in our classes so as to increase authenticity. Monika Lynch of Georgia Southern, encouraging an adaptation of the popular game Trivial Pursuit, provides creative ways for teachers to direct our advanced students toward a quest for knowledge and an opportunity for proficiency-oriented practice.

The last two articles in *Dimension '85* will go a long way to ease the fears of those who dread the seeming invasion of technology into the foreign language classroom. Max Gartman of Northern Alabama University describes the successful reversal of the role of the language lab from a place for repetitive practice to one for presentation of new material. D. Hampton Morris of Auburn University concludes the volume by describing his successful transition from one who feared the gadgetry of computers to an ardent computer convert. This pair of articles should encourage us to rethink what we have done in the past and to face any new technological developments with confidence. The entire volume should provide guidance and direction for organizing our programs and assisting students to develop greater proficiency in foreign languages.

1

Perspectives on Proficiency: 1985

Arnie Shore
Exxon Education Foundation
New York, New York

Keynote Address

It was August when I wrote this speech. In my small corner of the world, August 1985 was noteworthy for several reasons:

—New York was bone dry even as it bathed in humidity.

—Exxon Education Foundation was in its "slow" period even as we prepared energetically for a major review of the Foundation's grants programs.

—I had just attended a meeting cosponsored by Ford and Exxon on a national agenda for foreign language training and study, even as a national agenda for all of international studies was under way as part of the effort to surface a detailed, well-argued, and carefully presented case for a national foundation for international studies.

The moral I drew in August was this: From nature to foundations to the affairs of professions and nations, there are these "natural contradictions" that one must contend with. Put differently, when singlemindedness seems to be the call of the day, it does not seem possible to be altogether singleminded in purposeful action. Having to contend with water shortages one must contend also with an abundance of humidity. Having to deal with administrative catch-up during a slack time, one must turn attention to long-term program planning. And while one would like to be of single purpose in pursuing the ends of improved language training and technique, even this is not possible in a singleminded way as the national agenda for international studies marches ahead and carries with it foreign language studies.

Perhaps this is as it will always be. Competing needs, goals, and values characterize our modern lives and organizations. But if this is so, perhaps we can make use of the competing priorities to help set our singleminded purposes as high as possible while learning better how to deal with the competing calls of the day.

Of the arenas I mentioned above, the last—foreign language training—is of course the most compelling. For even as you undertake the good and sufficient work of employing proficiency principles in your teaching, national agendas insinuate their perspectives. One could imagine a cry for a return to what I'll term the new basics: for us, an insistence that we need more certified testers, more engagement of proficiency testing in curricular development, and that we leave it to proficiency, itself a powerful and driving concept, to push all of us in the direction of teaching usable skills in the variety of ways in which we choose to teach them.

The reason the topic of this address is important—I have the chance to remind you that you invited me to discuss perspectives on proficiency—is because the perspectives of the language profession will meet head on the perspectives of national policy and education planners whose views may indeed differ from your own. Moreover, unless you take account of perspectives other than your own, you will utter a complex irony—a singleminded call of "Let's get back to the future." (Imagine wasting that perfectly good phrase on something like a movie title.)

To seek the future directions of the proficiency movement and guide it as only the working professionals in language can is your purpose. But, as the political scientists would say, agenda setting is the call of the day. To join in that task—to join your perspectives with those of others while maintaining your singleminded, highminded goals—that is your purpose, too, I believe.

The agenda for foreign language studies is being set in the broad terms of international studies. To wit, there's talk of:

1. the creation and maintenance of pools of specialists with a high degree of competency in international affairs and a correspondingly high level of proficiency in one or more relevant languages. I underscore, as I am sure you do, the large place of language in this agenda item.

2. the creation and maintenance of knowledge about international affairs in general and so-called country knowledge in particular. Language holds the key, especially with regard to a deep understanding of countries, regions, and, if I dare say so, areas. (Aside: that area studies are country studies will some day be admitted by all those who profess to understand such areas of inquiry.)

3. the creation and maintenance of international linkages among international specialists worldwide. Again, language is in the forefront of making such sharing of intellectual resources possible.

4. enhancement of the general education of U.S. students to include opportunities for international study. I'd only comment here that study and travel abroad is truly enhanced by language proficiency put to specific and

definite use and that surely requires a thoroughgoing orientation to proficiency.

And then we come to foreign language proper. Here I'd like to rest for the next several moments. For while it is clear that language plays an integral part in each of the components of the national international studies agenda just listed (there's something about "national international studies agenda" I should perhaps ponder further), the exact nature of the language components of the agenda must be identified carefully if we are to reach a satisfying conclusion on how to present our needs and purposes.

It is just so much easier to assess the value of foreign language in all things international, as I've just done, than to adduce the foreign language agenda in and of and for itself.

I will borrow quite heavily from that sweaty day in August when several illustrious members of your fraternity joined in a truly constructive collegial exercise in the basement of the Ford Foundation (to me, "basement" sounds so much more down to earth—should I say down in the earth—than "brass-laden board room"). There we pondered what the national foreign language agenda would be, especially if one posed the possibility of a national center, or centers, for foreign language pedagogy.

The jury of your peers is still out—literally—writing their opinions. Suffice it to say that the interim outline of their thinking is available, based on my notes and filtered through my lenses. It is this work of your peers on a perspective not quite your own to which I will further add my own two cents, and that straight away.

The key linking of a national agenda for foreign language training to a national agenda for international studies is to define the context in which we can present to an interested public the case for language support. In the past, our intellectual leadership has promoted a national defense rationale. To promote and defend the national interest, we were told, one must support foreign language training. To a degree, that worked, but not of late. It was flawed in its singularity of purpose (there goes that theme again), for we should have added at a minimum the needs of educational institutions to integrate foreign language study with their own curriculum, rather than state, or at least imply, that it would be others, notably national defense institutions, that would benefit. And we should have noted that the individuals who study foreign language would themselves benefit immediately from gaining proficiency. They would have in hand a major tool of continuing education, one that gives them very special access to the unfolding story we call international affairs.

Two points. First, the defense strategy may be outdated. It's a difficult and not altogether satisfying rationale for academics to pursue. And, as it was pursued, it failed to link the several priority reasons just alluded to for supporting foreign language training. This means that it failed to offer a program in several usable and workable parts. If you will, singlemindedness does not a program make.

New leadership suggests that adult language competencies are a pressing national goal. In some ways, this restates the national defense argument, for national defense institutions partake of the advanced language skills of adult practitioners. More importantly, however, this rationale states that as a nation we must be committed to foreign language proficiency for a larger and larger proportion of the adult population so that, on a continuing basis, we are more prepared as a populace and a nation to face our international futures.

The second point is that the differences in the two approaches, or perspectives, if you will, are not trivial. The adult competency approach provides a proximate goal for educators and a long-term goal for our nation. It represents an educator's best hope, not a politician's best formulation. And it provides a number of pedagogical consequences that we can deliberate and develop. It is comfortable, I believe, and it is ours: useful to us, we know, and useful to others, we trust.

An adult competency approach to a national proficiency-oriented foreign language agenda embodies the following:

1. defining the scope of the term. When we say adult language competency we bespeak the range of interests from maintenance and retention of language skill to the organization of the education system. All of these are involved in gearing up for foreign language training for truly large numbers for the truly long haul.

2. measuring language competencies in a standard way. Here we must face the fact that we have, for oral proficiency, standardized on testers, not on tests. We need to consider reliability measures for testers, and we need to move on to consider the variety of validity measures for the tests themselves. We need also to consider the combination of proficiency and achievement, especially to relate our work to the specialized language programs. In a word, we need to push on with our understanding of testing and progress to the unending work of pursuing a common metric.

3. applying our testing philosophies to the evaluation of the ways we teach foreign language. That's not in the hope of finding the magic bullet of foreign language training. It is in the hope of rigorously defining what we do as we teach. Behind the technique labels we employ are the practices we actually engage in along with the emphases we place on them and the order in which we employ them. We need to understand what teaching components we hold in common and how they contribute to specific proficiency outcomes so that we can better share pedagogical practices.

Then it follows that, as educators, we'll want to isolate replicable training components—those that can be practiced by most all of us mortals—work them in experimental classrooms, train teachers in their use, and disseminate widely information on techniques and outcomes.

And we'll want to do several other things, which I'll checklist in more rapid order:

—We'll want to take account of learning styles.

—We'll want to address higher levels of proficiency materials and curricular development.

—We'll want to remain truly international in our perspective as we learn about the proficiency requirements of the less commonly taught languages and how they relate to the more commonly taught tongues. (Put in proficiency test terms, were Gertrude Stein among us she might quip that for the present a two is not a two is not a two).

—We'll want to undertake surveys of adult language usage in order to understand better where the needs and receptivities are for more proficient use of the languages, and the implications the data hold for training.

—We'll want to locate successful language programs and learn what we can from close observation of actual practice.

—We'll want to study the costs of a variety of language pedagogies in order to better understand what works with what populations at what cost and with what outcomes. To this end, we'll need to make common cause with methodological experts who, together with us, can design truly applied studies that loop back easily and pointedly to inform better teaching practice.

One reason for the rapid fire listing is to help make a major point. So often we hear a speaker exhort a profession. The immediate result is an elevation of adrenalin and perhaps an elevation of spirit, too (this holds, I would suggest, whether or not you agree with the speaker's statement). Not long thereafter, the fall off is dreadfully noticeable. Enthusiasm is spent. It's back to the job with not much change evident in oneself, one's peers, or one's profession.

Exhortation, to be sustained in its singleminded purposes, must link with elaborated structure. There's no way that each of us, on his or her own, can support the agenda just laid out, or ask most all of the proficiency questions that concern us as a profession, or engage fellow professionals in lasting dialogue about the unfolding future of proficiency unless we find a structured way to help sustain our lifelong interest in how better to teach foreign language. Yet, structures are imperfect. There may already be too many. They take scarce professional time and they require substantial money resources. But if a case can be made that the requirements of the proficiency movement are several, complex, and compelling, that no one of us—individually or organizationally—is quite prepared to undertake in a coordinated fashion the several activities listed above, then with some hesitation born of practical experience and some great hope born of professional commitment, we ought surely to consider an elaborated structure to support the systematic study and dissemination of effective pedagogical practice in foreign language training.

With the help of the Ford and Exxon Education Foundations, we've asked your colleagues to do just that: to start a series of forays into the structured requirements of the proficiency movement based on an unfailing concern for pedagogy, that is, how we teach and how we can teach better. By the end of summer 1986, we hope to have collected the wisdom of your peers.

This brings me, of course, to the third of my August travails—the preparation we engaged in to present to our foundation's trustees our program plans for the future. The hard work of the foundation's staff paid off in terms of high quality conversation with trustees on issues as diverse as the structural reform movement in precollegiate education, cost/financing/access issues as they relate to private and public education, the so-called preservation problems of the nation's major research libraries, and the proficiency orientation in foreign language training. Using the examples cited, in some ways it's easier to make the case for the first three issues because for the time, they own the immediate present. There is a marked change in the demographics of precollegiate education, and this calls forth great concern for the ability of those already heavily burdened to make use of a pressing opportunity to change teaching practice and school structures along the lines advocated by Sizer and Goodlad. The cost differential between private and public post-secondary education nears a 5:1 ratio on average, and the preservation problems facing our libraries stagger the senses. In comparison, we—you and I—seem to be saying that people ought to know foreign languages proficiently for some rather indefinite set of reasons. If you will, the indefiniteness is uneven. What proficiency achieves for our schools, our enterprises, and our nation—that's what trustees consider when they ponder the relative priorities of competing claims on scarce resources—and about that we sometimes have difficulty making the case in plain English.

Let me try to tie things together in a paragraph and then sound a final note. My purpose here today is to make use of the national agenda perspective to help us consider the variety of directions we must travel to seek and achieve the full promise of proficiency. Stated differently, agenda setting can be a time to set our sights high in a disciplined presentation of what we are committed to do as a profession. Done honestly and intelligently, we engage in a mature public policy exercise in which we provide a useful plan for ourselves and a convincing agenda for others. As I see things, the ratio of adult competency and the several directions of our work, including further test development and surveys of receptivity to proficiency-based training, grow developmentally out of the good and solid start of the proficiency movement. We should continue to work from what we know best—teaching—and we should venture a future whose stages and phases we can envision in detail because teaching remains at the heart. Our claims of benefitting others should be circumspect and organic, not farfetched and fanciful. Ours is an enterprise for the long term, and phrased carefully and with conviction, we will be able to convince others that the long term deserves a chance.

One final note. In inviting a foundation officer to address you, you are engaging in the very useful practice of sharing perspectives with one who would serve your profession. The service tie between foundation and education means to me that we recognize the inherent differences in our vantage points and the deep commonality in our purposes. I am enlivened by your pedagogical concerns and you, I trust, are benefitted from the cooperative efforts of foundations to understand your needs and respond. I can say, truly, that this address, then, is part of an ongoing conversation with you. Sometimes it is confined to your highly qualified leadership, sometimes it is broadened to larger groups, as I find here today. Be sure to know that while I have been glad to share my perspectives with you for these few moments, I am happer to hear you share your perspectives with me over much longer periods of time. The result of your actions will be better informed service, surely one of the highest goals of all foundations.

2

Developmental Stages in Functional Language Proficiency

Maria Teresa Garretón
Chicago State University

Frank W. Medley, Jr.
University of South Carolina

Introduction

If one were to investigate the history of foreign language instruction in the United States from the turn of the century to the mid-eighties, a subtle but interesting pattern would begin to emerge. Grammar translation, cognitive code learning, audiolingualism, the Silent Way, Counseling Learning/Community Language Learning, the Dartmouth method, suggestopedia, communicative competence—each has brought its ritual and litany to the classroom. Yet each has invariably left both student and teacher with a disquieting premonition that somehow, for some reason, all is not quite right. Conscientious effort in the classroom does not seem to be rewarded by the ability to use language spontaneously outside the classroom. In some instances we defend the product of our efforts as teachers by insisting that for "real mastery" to develop, a stint in a country where the language is spoken natively must also be a part of the learner's experience. On other occasions we flail ourselves with talk of our own inadequacies in the classroom, or the lack of funds to support the educational enterprise, or the regrettable lack of intellectual ability our students have brought to the classroom. And through it all we tend to remain blissfully unaware of one source of information that might help us understand more completely why our students perform as they do, and that might argue strongly for substantive changes in our perceptions of the process of language learning. That source is the body of research in cognitive psychology.

Recently, the attention of the foreign language teaching profession has turned to an approach used by several governmental agencies to determine the skill with which an individual can perform orally in a second language. The assessment strategy, known as the oral proficiency interview (OPI), suggests that one cannot adequately measure foreign language competence by testing discrete skills alone: a more global, or integrative approach is necessary. Furthermore, for the measure to be thorough, it should check to see 1) *what* functions the individual can carry out (in other words, what can the speaker do with the language), 2) the contexts within which these things can be done, and 3) the accuracy with which the tasks are performed. The OPI strives to satisfy these criteria, describing performance in terms of ranges from "no functional ability" to "ability equivalent to that of an educated native speaker." (ACTFL, 1985) Although individual characteristics differ, certain features are shared by all of the speakers within any given range, just as are specific limitations. For example, language users who are rated as Intermediate (be they Low, Mid or High) *will be able to* create original meaningful utterances in the language, ask and answer questions, and use the second language to get into, through and out of a simple situation such as arranging an appointment. Similarly, Intermediate speakers *will be unable to* consistently narrate events and describe settings in past time with any degree of accuracy. At the Advanced level, speakers are expected to demonstrate that they can get into, through, and out of situations with a complication, as well as narrate and describe in past and future time. However, the Advanced speaker *cannot* hypothesize or support opinion adequately. Thus each range has its own descriptors in terms of function, context, and accuracy, and on the basis of the OPI, a candidate can be rated quite reliably by trained interviewers.

As we begin to look objectively at the many factors that help us determine how to express ourselves at any given moment, or that enable us to process and understand language generated by another person, either orally or in writing, we become increasingly aware that at some point "knowledge," or cognitive ability becomes a key factor in an individual's performance. But how does one draw distinction between ability in language use and cognitive ability? Is it possible that one subsumes the other? If a student fails to hypothesize, for example, can one be certain that the problem is linguistic rather than cognitive? Much has been written about stages of intellectual development, yet few efforts have been made to investigate the relationship between second language acquisition and cognitive ability. Furthermore, the research that has been conducted is weak with respect to research design and control of variables, since it is for the most part descriptive and subjective in nature—hardly strong bases for supporting or rejecting hypotheses. It is significant, therefore, that the profession is beginning to talk about the commonalities of the two, because out of these informal discussions and presentations will eventually emerge a body of hard data research that will contribute much to our understanding and appreciation of the phenomenon of language acquisition.

This paper will consider several widely accepted theories of cognition, draw parallels between specific stages of intellectual maturity and development of proficiency in a second language, and suggest ways in which teachers may be able to help students progress from one stage to another within the context of foreign language instruction.

Of Thought and Language

At its most basic level, thought might be defined as mental activity that is one step beyond a stimulus/response reaction. More complex thought is generally associated with or described as the generation of an idea, or perhaps even as a more sophisticated process that involves the formation of concepts. As language teachers, it is this notion of thought as process and concept formation that is of most interest, since our task is to help students learn to express themselves and communicate their ideas effectively and efficiently in a second language. The ability to understand (or at least identify) the processes the language learner follows in assigning meaning to a particular word, in assigning a word to a category of meanings, and in forming concepts may provide valuable insights that have strong implications for curriculum design, instructional strategies, and materials development.

In 1934, the results of a series of investigations in developmental psychology, education, and psychopathology that had been conducted by Lev Semenovich Vygotsky were published. Appearing only a few months after the author's death, the essays were almost immediately suppressed by the Russian government and did not surface again until 1956, when they were included in a volume of the author's selected works. But it was not until 1962 that the English translation entitled *Thought and Language* was published, and Vygotsky's conception of linguistic and cognitive development became known outside his own country. (Vygotsky, 1962)

The young Russian based his theoretical and critical discussions on the premise that thought and speech have two different genetic roots and that the two functions develop along different lines that are independent of each other. According to Vygotsky, if one plots the developmental curves of thought and speech, a prelinguistic (or "non-speaking") phase can be identified in the development of thought, just as a preintellectual (or "non-thinking") phase can be discerned in the development of speech. In other words, through observation one can recognize instances in which young children demonstrate that they understand what is said by reacting to language used in their presence, but they, themselves, still cannot produce meaningful speech. Similarly, much of the very early babbling and verbalization emanating from babies contributes to the subsequent ability to form the necessary sounds, words, and phrases associated with intelligible speech, but does not seem to be based upon an intellectual decision-making model of speech production. By about the age of twenty-four months, the two curves join and the child becomes able to communicate. From that point on, Vygotsky theorizes that an ongoing and increasingly complex mental process ensues that results in the development of the child's native language ability.

During this very early period the learner progresses through four stages in terms of cognitive activity. First, the child acquires a dim realization of the purpose of speech and begins to ask for things with words instead of with simple cries (in English, for example, the words might be mama, wawa, go, etc.). Second, a will to conquer the language seems to develop to address the child's need and desire to communicate. Third, the young learner passes into a stage where the discovery is made that "everything has a name," and a more extensive lexicon begins to develop quite rapidly, which enables further self-expression with a more complex syntax. Finally, the child enters the stage in which thoughts can be verbalized and speech becomes quite rational. (Vygotsky, 1962)

Simultaneous with the evolution of cognition, the child passes through four stages of speech development. To begin with, the infant is born into the primitive or natural stage, where all sounds begin as no more than pre-intellectual babbling. The second stage is characterized by "play" with the language, considerable unintentional misuse of lexicon, gross overgeneralization of meaning (i.e., all four-legged animals are "doggies"), and correct use of many grammatical forms without an awareness of or attention to the logical operations necessary to generate those forms. During this stage, the child is "immersed" in an environment where the language is being used and is improving his or her performance based on that experience. (It is interesting to note that this view would support the long-held attitude of many educators that the linguistic and intellectual richness or deprivation of the home environment is a critical factor in determining whether or not the child will be able to function effectively once the period of formal schooling begins.) In the third stage, the child begins to demonstrate an awareness of external signs and operations, using the fingers to count on, reciting lists such as days of the week, employing mnemonic devices, and otherwise indicating a preliminary awareness and sensitivity to the organizing principles of the language. The fourth stage, which might be thought of as the "logical memory" stage, is characterized by generally well-patterned use of the language, although there may still be some systematic errors occurring, particularly among less frequently used structures or more infrequent lexical categories.

But the developmental process leading to speech production that Vygotsky hypothesized did not explain adequately the "thinking" process. So, in an effort to investigate concept formation, Vygotsky and his associates conducted a series of experiments with some three hundred people—children, adolescents, and adults—and identified three basic phases in the "ascent" to concept formation: 1) unorganized congeries, 2) thinking in complexes, and 3) thinking in concepts. Summarizing his findings, Vygotsky reported:

> The development of the processes which eventually result in concept formation begins in earliest childhood, but the intellectual functions that in a specific combination form the psychological basis of the process of concept formation ripen, take shape, and develop only at puberty. . . . Concept formation is the result of a complex activity in which all the basic intellectual functions take place. The process cannot, however, be reduced to association, attention, imagery, inference, or determining tendencies. They are all indispensable, but they are insufficient without the use of the sign, or word, as the means by which we direct our mental operations, control their course, and channel them toward the solution of the problem confronting us. (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 58)

The researchers do not describe in detail the concept formation tests, although it is known that wooden blocks of different sizes, shapes, and colors were used. On the bottom of each block was written one of four nonsense words in Russian (lag, bik, mur, cev), and all the blocks were combined into one large group. The investigator would show the subjects a word on the bottom of one of the blocks and then ask them to pick out other blocks they think might belong to the same group. As the blocks were selected, the investigator revealed the word on the bottom, thus confirming or rejecting the conceptual framework (i.e., the criteria or reasoning processes) the subjects were using to govern their selections. The investigators maintained that the characteristics of the blocks selected by the subjects and modifications made in the selection process as the experiment progressed revealed the steps in the reasoning of the subjects. Based upon these experiments, then, Vygotsky and his associates classified the three basic phases mentioned above.

In the first major phase identified by the researchers—unorganized congeries—the child seems to link words and objects by chance or completely at random. This would correspond to that stage in a child's language development when a single word may be used to convey a variety of meanings. "Wawa" may be used as the word for "rain" or may be used to represent "a glass of water" or "I want a drink of water" or "I spilled the water on the floor" or "Pour the water here" or "This is where water comes from" (pointing to a faucet, for example). These syncretic relationships result in objects and ideas being "heaped together" so that all are represented by the same word or group of words. Verbs may be nominalized (e.g., "kitchen" used to designate the verb "cook"), nouns misused ("car" for "mailbox"), expressions unrelated to situations ("bye-bye" in the middle of a visit), and so on. Lexicon becomes grouped through trial and error, with the child retaining those words that seem to produce meaning to the adult with whom the child is communicating. At this point, however, there would appear to be no process of systematization or lexical analysis that the child uses to determine the grouping of new vocabulary items.

As the child's vocabulary grows through this trial-and-error process, a systematic grouping strategy does develop, with contiguity in time and space or some other visually and immediately perceived characteristic apparently dictating the organization of the groupings. Soon after, the child begins to transfer words between the various "heaps" that have been established, looking for more order among groups. Groups of four-legged animals with tails standing together are all "cows" to the young learner, until a more specific schema is developed for "four-legged things with tails" that enables the child to distinguish between dog, cow, horse, deer, and so on.

The second major phase in concept development—thinking in complexes—is characterized by the fact that bonds between groups of words do exist, and are much more sophisticated. To use the earlier illustration, a child in this stage can distinguish cows from other animals, but would have difficulty drawing distinctions among bovines (i.e., cow/bull, calf/yearling, bull/steer, Guernsey/Holstein, and so on). Bonds seem to rest on associative characteristics (size, shape, color), same/different traits (green/not green), groups of features (either red or green, round or square), which at times may be concrete and at other times be vague and diffused, or pseudo-concepts—generalizations formed in the child's mind that are based on perceived attributes rather than on the nature of the object. This second major phase would correspond most likely to that child language period when the preschooler is often uttering "cute" statements reflecting what adults perceive as "naive" or "innocent" explanations of situations or phenomena. Children create "definitions" for unknown words, or weave "fairy tales" or fantasies to explain events that are new to them. In effect, the youngster is attempting to use a limited "known" (the language the child possesses) to interpret a limitless unknown (the myriad world of adult language use in which the child is immersed).

As the child matures, new meanings and generalizations evolve, and the third phase of concept formation is realized. The environment within which the child exists offers stability and permanence to the meaningfulness of language. As more and more life experience is accumulated, the child begins to make decisions and draw conclusions based upon more complex criteria. Comparisons and contrasts are made, inferences are drawn, hypotheses are developed, positions are stated and defended, and the learner enters the sphere of adult language use. Intellectual tasks that were earlier too complex for the child are now possible, and the person can express effectively the results of those tasks. The individual can abstract and single out elements of an experience, view those elements apart from the experience as a whole, draw conclusions, synthesize and analyze, all based upon a process of reasoning. The relationship described by Vygotsky has been attained. "The relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought." (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 125)

Intellectual Development in the Young Adult

In the early 1950s, a major study was launched at Harvard and Radcliffe by a group of university psychologists in an effort to document the experience of undergraduate students during their four years of college. The results of that study were subsequently published in 1968 and offer considerable insight not so much into what a person "knows" as into the sequence of intellectual development that accompanies the journey from adolescence to adulthood. (Perry, 1968) Since most second-language instruction is directed toward the adolescent or adult learner, the results of Perry's work may be of value in helping distinguish between linguistic performance and cognitive performance.

Instead of relying upon intelligence tests or psychological questionnaires, Perry and his associates conducted a series of taped conversations with students in which the participants were invited to "think, taking their own time, doing it in their own way, choosing their own topics." (Perry, 1968, p. vi) Once the material was collected, it was analyzed by independent researchers to avoid investigator bias. As a result of the success the researchers had in conveying a feeling of genuine interest in the conversations, the students responded with sincerity and made a concerted effort to formulate and express their personal feelings and reflections on the topics considered.

The pattern of intellectual development that evolved from the studies at the two institutions was characterized as a three-part process—Duality, Multiplicity, Relativism—with each of these parts further divided into three positions. Viewed broadly, the adolescent begins with an attitude of Duality, in which all things are viewed as part of a dichotomy: We/They, right/wrong, good/bad, yes/no, can/cannot, and so on. Absolute knowledge is attainable, and Authority has the answers. The purpose of the education process is to learn to identify the correct answers, procedures, responses, as determined by Authority. The goal to be attained is to satisfy Authority and become one of Us as opposed to one of Them.

As an awareness of the legitimacy of diversity of opinion develops in the adolescent, so the second part of the scheme—Multiplicity—emerges. Here, the individual acknowledges the existence of uncertainty and ambiguity. Multiple opinions are possible and legitimate, but only temporarily, because they occur only in those areas in which Authority has not yet found the Truth. In the later positions of Multiplicity, the person begins to accept the idea that "everyone has a right to his/her own opinion." Comparisons and contrasts are possible, hypotheses generated by and original to the individual are tolerated, although logical reasoning may not be sufficient basis for reaching a conclusion, since more that one equally "logical" alternative may be offered.

As the individual begins to realize that all knowledge and values (including Authority's) are both contextual and relativistic, a new part of the scheme—Relativism—develops. Different perspectives on an issue may result in different answers or positions. The person is now able to see various sides of an issue, perhaps even argue both sides intellectually. Knowledge, meaning, values, all begin to be considered in terms of their relationship to the student's own life. "I am the Master of my Fate, I am the Captain of my Soul" might be the rallying cry as one moves into Relativism. Words like "commitment" and "responsibility" become critically important to the decision-making process. As Perry (1968) explains it,

> The drama of development now centers on this theme of responsibility. The hero makes some first definition of himself by some engagement undertaken at his own risk. Next he realizes in actual experience the implications of his initial Commitments. Then, as he expands the arc of his engagements and pushes forward in the impingements and unfoldings of experience, he discovers that he has undertaken not a finite set of decisions but a way of life. (Perry, p. 153)

Jacobus (1985) attributes a fourth heading of Dialectic to the Perry scheme, wherein the learner is able to consider, evaluate and reformulate hypotheses and conclusions and, in a sense, "construct knowledge." (Jacobus, p. 7) However, the present authors have been unable to substantiate the additional heading based upon the report of the Perry group.

Piaget Revisited

Perhaps no other psychologist in this century has had the profound effect on current educational thought than has Jean Piaget. Born in 1896 in Switzerland and educated as a natural scientist, by the middle of the twentieth century he had become the most frequently cited author in professional journals and textbooks on child development. Piaget's primary interest lay in observing and documenting those developmental changes that occur in individuals between birth and adolescence. Like Vygotsky and Perry, Piaget's approach has been "one of systematic observation, description, and analysis." (Wadsworth, 1979, p. 8)

In formulating his theory of intellectual development, Piaget observed that biological acts are acts of adaptation to and organization of the physical environment. (Wadsworth, 1979) This awareness led him to conceptualize cognitive development in much the same way, stating that cognitive acts are acts of organization of and adaptation to the perceived environment—the basic principles of cognitive development being the same as those of biological development.

In order to understand the processes of intellectual organization and adaptation as viewed by Piaget and to define the link between second language learning and cognitive development, one must address four basic concepts—schema, assimilation, accommodation, and equilibrium—used by Piaget to explain the process of mental development.

Piaget believed that the mind had to have structures in much the same way the body does. We have a stomach—a structure that allows us to eat and digest. To help explain why people make rather stable responses to stimuli, and to account for many of the phenomena associated with memory, Piaget used the word *schema*. Schemata are the cognitive or mental structures by which individuals intellectually adapt to and organize the environment in a variety of ways. These structures are the mental counterparts of biological means of adapting. Thus, just as the stomach is the biological structure used to adapt to the environment, so schemata are equivalent intellectual (or cognitive) structures that adapt and change as the child develops.

To better grasp this notion, it is helpful to think of schemata as concepts or categories. Wadsworth (1979) uses the analogy of an index file, each index card representing a schema. When a child is born, he has few schemata (cards on file), but as he grows and develops, his schemata gradually broaden (become more generalized), become more differentiated and progressively more "adult." Schemata never stop changing or becoming more refined. As an example, Wadsworth describes a child walking down a country road with his parents. He looks into the field and sees a four-legged animal that he has not seen before. The child says, "Look at the big dog!" In terms of intellectual functioning, the child's response could imply that, when confronted with a new stimulus—in this case the cow—the child tries to "fit" it into an available schema (card file). Since the cow closely approximated a dog, (four legs, tail, ears, covered with hair, etc.), he called the cow a dog. He was not able to perceive the differences between a cow and a dog, but he was able to see the similarities.

It is the existence of these schemata, or intellectual structures, that enables us to organize events as they are perceived by separating them into groups according to common characteristics. As children become more proficient at differentiating between stimuli, schemata become more numerous, and as the young learners begin to generalize across stimuli, schemata become more refined.

In order for schemata to change, allowances must be made for the growth and development of the "card file." Adults have different concepts from children, yet their cognitive schemata have their origins in the same sensori-motor schema that the child possesses. One of the processes responsible for this intellectual growth is *assimilation*.

Assimilation is the cognitive process by which the person integrates new perceptual data or stimulus events into existing schemata or patterns of behavior. Piaget borrowed the term from biology, since he perceived this activity to be the intellectual counterpart of eating, where material (food) is ingested, digested and assimilated or changed into a usable form. Assimilation goes on all the time, with the human being continually processing an increasing number of stimuli.

Theoretically, assimilation does not result in the development (change) of schemata, but it does affect their parameters. One might compare a schema to a balloon, and assimilation to putting more air in the balloon. The balloon gets larger (assimilation growth) but does not change its shape (development). However, if assimilation does not produce change, and since we know schenata do change (adult schemata are different from children's), then there must be some aspect of the cognitive process functioning in conjunction with assimilation. Piaget names this concept *accommodation*.

Upon being confronted with a new stimulus, the child tries to assimilate it into existing schemata. Sometimes this is not possible, because the child has no schemata into which the new stimulus can be placed. The characteristics of the stimulus do not approximate those required in any of the child's available "files." At this point, the child can do one of two things: he can create a new schema into which he can place the stimulus, or he can modify an existing schema so that the stimulus will fit into it—both are forms of accommodation. Thus accommodation can be defined as the creation of new schemata or the modification of old schemata, both of which result in a change in or development of cognitive structures (schemata). Once accommodation has taken place, the child can try again to assimilate the stimulus. Since the structure has changed, the stimulus is readily assimilated. Assimilation is always the end product that the child actively seeks.

Summarizing, then, in assimilation the person imposes his available structures on the stimuli being processed. That is, the stimuli are "forced" to fit the person's existing structures. In accommodation the reverse is true—the person is "forced" to change his schemata to fit the new stimuli. Accommodation accounts for development (qualitative change), and assimilation accounts for growth (quantitative change); together they account for intellectual adaptation and the development of structures that are associated with cognitive maturation.

Just as the processes of assimilation and accommodation are necessary for cognitive growth and development, so, too, are the relative amounts of each that take place. For example, imagine the logical outcome in terms of mental development if a person always assimilated stimuli and never accommodated. The individual would end up with a very few large schemata and would be unable to detect differences in things, thus most things would be perceived as similar. On the other hand, if a person always accommodated and never assimilated, the result would be the presence of a great number of very small schemata that would have very little generality, and the learner would be unable to detect similarities. Either extreme can be disastrous; thus a balance between assimilation and accommodation is as necessary as the processes themselves. This balance is referred to by Piaget as ***equilibrium***, with disequilibrium being the imbalance between the two. When cognitive disequilibrium occurs, it provides motivation to seek equilibrium. Thus equilibrium is seen as the necessary condition towards which the organism constantly strives. By extension, then, the process of cognitive development is one in which the learner experiences a state of disequilibrium as a result of being presented with a new stimulus and modifies his intellectual structures in order to attain a state of equilibrium.

Piaget's Periods of Development

For purposes of conceptualizing cognitive growth, Piaget divided intellectual development into four broad periods (these are not discrete stages or steps, but periods of development):

1. The period of sensori-motor intelligence (0-2 years). During this period behavior is primarily motor. The child does not yet "think" conceptually, though some cognitive development is seen.
2. Period of pre-operational thought (2-7 years). This period is characterized by the development of language and rapid conceptual development.
3. The period of concrete operations (7-11 years). During these years the child develops the ability to apply logical thought to concrete problems.
4. The period of formal operations (11-15 years or older). Cognitive structures reach their greatest level of development, and the child becomes able to apply logic to all kinds of problems.

Development is thought to flow along in a cumulative manner, each new step in development becoming integrated with previous steps. As Piaget writes, "the fact should be emphasized that the behavior patterns characteristic of the stages do not succeed each other in a linear way (those of a given stage disappearing at the time when those of the following one take form) but in the same manner of the layers of a pyramid. . .the new behavior patterns simply being added to the old ones to complete, correct or combine with them." (Piaget, 1952, p. 329)

Sensori-motor. The child at age two is cognitively different from the infant at birth, since the newborn performs only reflex activity. Early in the second year, true intelligent behavior typically occurs; the child evolves "new" means to solving problems through "experimentation." Also, the child begins to perceive himself as an object among objects. Toward the end of the second year, the child becomes able to internally represent objects. This ability liberates him from sensori-motor intelligence, permitting the invention of new approaches to solving problems through mental activity. The cognitive development of the sensori-motor period evolves as the child acts on the environment. The child's actions are spontaneous, the motivation for a particular action is internal.

Upon completing the development of the sensori-motor period (before or after age two), the child has reached a point of conceptual development necessary for the development of spoken language and other cognitive skills that will come during the next period of cognitive development, the pre-operational period. From this point on, the child's intellectual development will take place increasingly in the conceptual-symbolic area rather than exclusively in the sensori-motor area. This does not imply that sensori-motor development ends, only that "intellectual" development is to be affected by representational and symbolic activity rather than by motor activity alone.

Pre-operational period. Qualitatively the thought of the pre-operational child is an advance over the thought of the sensori-motor child. The young learner is no longer restricted primarily to immediate perceptual and motor events, though perception still dominates reasoning. When conflicts arise between perception and thought, as in conservation problems, for example, children using pre-operational reasoning make judgements based on perceptions.

The pre-operational period is marked by some dramatic attainments: language is acquired very rapidly between the ages of two and four; behavior in the early part of the period is largely egocentric and non-social. These characteristics become less dominant as the period proceeds, and by age six or seven children's conversations become largely communicative and social.

While pre-operational thought is an advance over sensori-motor reaction, it is restricted in many respects. The child is unable to reverse operations and cannot follow transformations. Perceptions tend to reflect the egocentric nature of the child. These characteristics make for slow, concrete, and restricted thought.

Concrete operations. The period of concrete operations can be viewed as a transition period during which the child attains the use of logical operations for the first time. Thought is no longer dominated by perceptions, the child being able to solve concrete problems logically. The concrete operational child is not egocentric in his thought. He can assume the viewpoints of others and his language is social and communicative.

While concrete thought is clearly superior to pre-operational thought, it is still inferior to the thought of the older child. Although the youngster in this third stage of development can use logical operations to solve problems involving "concrete" objects and events, he cannot solve hypothetical problems, problems that are entirely verbal, or problems that require more complex or abstract operations.

Formal Operations. In terms of functional ability, both the concrete operational and the formal operational stages are the same, in that the child can employ logical operations to solve problems. The principal difference between the two stages is the wider range of operations that the child can perform with formal thought. While the child in the earlier stage is limited to the solution of problems involving tangible, concrete operations, the realm of the hypothetical is not one that can be dealt with effectively. Similarly, the concrete operational stage is limited to problems of the present, as opposed to conjectural situations that might be encountered in the future. Formal operations enable the learner to employ theories, use scientific reasoning, understand cause/effect relationships, and follow the line of reasoning underlying an argument.

Beyond Piaget: A fifth stage? In 1973, Riegel suggested that the four stages identified by Piaget failed to represent adequately the great variety of thought processes carried on by the adult, and hypothesized the presence of a fifth stage, which he called the period of dialectic operations. Two years later, Arlin (1975) posited a stage beyond formal operations, and offered empirical evidence to support the existence of that stage. She chose to refer to this new stage as problem-finding (thus going beyond the stage of formal operations, or problem-solving), and maintained that this advanced stage would explain the consistent, progressive changes in thought structures that we often associate with creativity, and which cannot be adequately accounted for by the original categories described by Piaget.

Thus the work of Riegel and Arlin would seem to confirm empirically that differences do exist between the cognitive processing strategies and capabilities of children and adults. As a result, when comparisons are made between native- and second-language acquisition, the age factor must be considered. If, as Vygotsky (1962) says, "the relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought," (p. 215) then most certainly the experiential framework within which the process occurs is a critical determinant of the product. As Higgs (1979) observes, "while methodological factors are doubtless an important part of the total pedagogical picture, other factors also enter in, and some of these may be necessarily antecedent to the methodology or materials." (p. 336) He continues by noting that "there are certain essential things that students have to know before they can speak and understand a foreign language. It is possible that successful foreign-language teachers are successful because something in their approach gets these essentials across in such a form that their students can actually learn them." (Higgs, 1979, p. 336) It is also quite likely that the degree of "fit" between the instructional strategies employed by the teacher and the stage of cognitive development of the learner is one of the major determinants of whether or not a student develops functional proficiency as a result of the classroom experience. The FLES programs of the 1960s provide convincing support to the argument that strategies that work for adolescent and adult learners are not appropriate for the preadolescent.

In summary, then, there would appear to be shared characteristics among a number of theories of cognitive development. First, development of intellectual ability seems to come about in generally sequential stages, with each stage subsuming the preceding one. Second, there is a progression from concreteness to abstractness in terms of what the learner is able to comprehend and manipulate intellectually. Third, the development of cognitive ability is an active process that is refined through experience. It is the internal processing of external stimuli. And, fourth, the learner's use of language provides one of the primary insights into the level of cognition at which the individual is functioning.

Language As Sign and Symbol

In 1960 a group of researchers at the newly established Center for Cognitive Studies began an intensive investigation into the development of cognition in school-aged children. A number of issues were highlighted as a result of this work and became topics for subsequent research. One observation reported was that in the Western child (as opposed to the Oriental or Asiatic child), once certain processing skills begin to develop (somewhere between the ages of five and seven), the child moves very rapidly "from a technique of dealing with things one aspect at a time in terms of their perceptual appearance to dealing with sets of invariant features several at a time and in some structured relationship." (Bruner, 1966, p. xi) As Bruner describes this quantum leap,

> One sees, for example, that a particular child at a particular age cannot use indirect questions in the game of 'Twenty Questions.' He interprets questions as direct probes for the answer. Some weeks later, the notion of organizing information hierarchically and of using bracketing questions appear with all the abruptness of a rash. The child is suddenly asking indirect, information-seeking questions rather than guessing the answer. (Bruner, p. 5)

Gradually, the child learns to think of the world in which he functions in three ways: 1) the actions he uses in coping with it; 2) the objects upon which he acts, but which are independent of the actions taken toward them; and 3) the language used to express symbolically the interrelationship of object and action. In support of this system of classification that identifies three representations—enactive, ikonic, and symbolic—Bruner makes the following observations:

1. Toward the closing months of the first year of life. . .the identification of objects seems to depend not so much on the nature of objects encountered as on the actions evoked by them. (p. 12)

> 2. A second stage in representation emerges when a child is finally able to represent the world to himself by an image or spatial schema that is relatively independent of action. (p. 21)
> 3. The idea that there is a name that goes with things and that the name is arbitrary is generally taken as the essence of symbolism. . . . It is apparent that a fully developed use of symbolic reference in this sense is not immediately available to the child who begins to talk. For one thing, the child first learns words as signs rather than as symbols, standing for a thing present before him and conceives of the word rather as an aspect of the thing. (p. 31)

Based on these views, Bruner suggests that this learning of the "semantic function" of language is a slow process because it is essentially cumulative. In his words, "In learning how to speak or to recognize whether what he hears is semantically sensible or anomalous, the child is learning to match the semantic markers of some words he has learned to the selection requirements of others that he is using in a sentence." (Bruner, 1966, p. 32) This position is supported by the work of Kuhlman (1960), who found that learning semantic markers of words is an intellectual task rather than a perceptual one. As the child develops the ability to use the language, a functional "grammar" guides the process. Although the young learner is unaware of the formalized "rules," they are nonetheless present in varying stages of development. Brown and Fraser (1964) hypothesize that "child speech is a systematic reduction of adult speech largely accomplished by omitting function words that carry little information." (p. 79) They continue by suggesting that:

> As a child becomes capable (through maturation and the learning of frequent sequences) of mastering more and more of the detail of adult speech, his original rules will have to be revised and supplemented. As the generative grammar grows more complicated and more like the adult grammar, the child's speech will become capable of expressing a greater variety of meaning. (Brown and Fraser, p. 79)

In summary, then, the development of language is viewed as moving from concrete (sign) to abstract (symbol), both in terms of the ability to generate meaning (i.e., from language heard and/or writing) and to generate language (i.e., speak and write). Although cognitive processing may occur without manifestation in oral language (as when a hearing- and speech-impaired person communicates), the converse is not true. Human production of language must either be preceded or accompanied by the development of the intellectual ability necessary to form and use the language.

The Foreign Language Learner

Most students in the United States begin the study of a foreign language at a time following the onset of the concrete operational stage as described by Piaget (1952). Children have developed the ability to sequence thoughts into logical reasoning processes and to make decisions based upon the factual information they possess. The child is becoming decreasingly egocentric and is developing greater interest in the use of language for social interaction. Because of the learner's ability to perceive the salient features of objects, to coordinate successive steps in solving problems, to reverse the order of operational procedures and to arrive at conclusions, the learners are said to be more analytical in their performances.

This analytical bent, in turn, has considerable significance to the study of a second language. To begin with, the learner already has many cognitive schemata and is experienced at performing numerous functions. The concept of words, letters, sounds and symbols already is part of the learner's experience. In other words, the student's processing strategies already exist in varying degrees, although the ability to encode and decode meaning in the second language is not present. The second language skill simply is not developed to the point that it can become the medium through which information is received and processed.

One of the major contributions that has been made to the profession by the recent focus on functional proficiency is the improved understanding we now have of the stages through which second language learners progress. The novice learner communicates largely with memorized phrases, one-word utterances, and non-verbal strategies. The intermediate learner functions with sentence-level language, communicating for the most part about concrete things and with little ability to refer to times other than the present. The advanced learner begins to string together language into paragraph-length narrative and description and becomes increasingly capable of communicating about things removed both temporally and spatially from the instance. And the superior learner virtually has complete control of the form of the language, possesses both concrete and abstract reasoning ability, and can talk about things removed and unfamiliar.

Certainly, then, the stages in second-language development reflect increasingly complex cognitive skills. However, it is not these skills themselves that have been developed in the classroom—it is the ability to stimulate these processes in the second language that has been accomplished. Another way of describing the phenomenon would be to say that the learner has experienced a replication of the sequence of cognitive development, but in a high-speed mode, and in a second language. In the foreign language classroom, the individual has passed through the sensori-motor stage of hearing and reproducing sounds that were largely meaningless, into the preoperational period, where word- and sentence-length language is used, topics of discussion are most likely egocentric, and so on. The learner then progresses into the period of concrete operations, where logical reasoning and social use of language become quite well developed. And finally, for those who continue to use the second language for communicative purposes, the stage of formal operations can be attained. The user is able to theorize, hypothesize, understand and express cause and effect relationships and function both formally and informally in the language. Essentially, the process has paralleled the development of the native language ability, although what has been "learned" is not the cognitive processes that accompany language use so much as the new linguistic and cultural "code" of the idiom.

Implications for the Classroom

Several immediate implications can be drawn from the insights provided by the focus on cognitive development. First, for the second language to follow the pattern of development of the native language, similar conditions should be present insofar as it is possible to provide them. It is unrealistic to presume that the actual environmental conditions of infancy and childhood can be duplicated in the classroom, since there is no comparison between the total "exposure time" to the language. The child learning the native language is totally immersed in the medium, beginning at birth, and is in the presence of a language community that is well aware (albeit intuitively) of the stages of communicative ability through which the young learner will pass. The child's interlocutor has a tolerance for the "baby talk" and metalanguage that the child uses and does not reject the novice speaker's efforts to communicate. The young learner can ask for help or explanation any time an unfamiliar linguistic situation is encountered. And above all else, these novice learners generally are not placed in a psychologically threatening situation where they are expected to use language beyond their ability to do so.

Once formal instruction begins in the native language, greater emphasis is placed upon accuracy, variety of structure, increased vocabulary, style, and so on. This is recognized, however, as study *of* the language rather than as the essence of the language itself. As the learners mature, efforts are made to help them develop an appreciation for literature and an ability to express themselves personally and creatively. The ability to use the native language—and the improvement of that ability—is perceived generally as a life-long learning experience and is frequently a critical factor both in personal and professional growth.

In the second-language classroom, then, the teacher should attempt to make maximum use of the short time available. Students need to have as much exposure as possible to the target language, without being expected to begin to produce the language prematurely. The teacher should always be an interested and sympathetic interlocutor, willing to give the learner credit for the effort made to communicate. Students should not be placed in situations that are so far beyond their abilities to perform that they are threatened psychologically.

In the native language, one can focus on formal study of the language in the classroom and consider communicative practice to be an out-of-class activity. Not so in the foreign language classroom. Here, time for both instruction and practice must be scheduled and provided on a regular basis. Teachers must consciously recognize the need for periods of communicative practice where the exchange of real and interesting information among the students is the primary objective, and for periods of formalized, teacher-centered instruction where emphasis is placed upon accuracy of form, content, and the like. Hence, developing functional proficiency implies placing importance upon both the message and the form, and structuring the classroom to strike the appropriate balance.

In conclusion, the level of language use of which a person is capable is dependent upon two major variables: 1) the stage of cognitive development the user has attained, and 2) the extent to which the user has mastered the linguistic and cultural code of the language itself. Language is a manifestation of thought, and thought cannot exist without language. It is the responsibility of the teacher to establish goals and objectives that recognize this interrelationship and then to develop instructional strategies that are sensitive to the cognitive, the affective, and the linguistic needs and desires of the learner. In this way, an environment is established within which functional proficiency in the second language may begin to emerge.

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3

Cultural Understanding, Oral Proficiency, and Study Abroad:

Getting It All Together

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As anyone caught up in the enthusiasm of the oral proficiency movement knows, recent articles and workshops for familiarizing or training interviewers frequently trace the history of oral proficiency evaluation from Babel up to the present. And any discussion on the topic is incomplete without reference to John Carroll's study reporting on the second-language skills of college foreign language majors. (Carroll, 1967) While generally remembered today because it revealed that majors nearing graduation attained at best a "2" or "2-plus" rating on the government's oral (now ILR) scale, the Carroll study brought out other salient points that have received less attention and thus may be foggier in our minds. Perhaps a quick review might be in order.

We recall that Carroll divided a population of nearly 3,000 college French, German, Russian, and Spanish majors into groups, each composed of students sharing common background experiences. One consisted of all foreign language majors who had never been abroad. A second contained only those who had spent a summer overseas or taken a short tour abroad, and a third was composed of those spending an entire academic year overseas. Results of listening comprehension tests administered to all three groups revealed that students spending even a brief period abroad had significantly higher scores than those who had never traveled. those spending a year abroad scored even better.

Another point stressed by Carroll was that students commencing language study at an early age and persisting throughout college had a distinct advantage over later starters. Such findings persuaded him that the two variables most strongly associated with second-language skill attainment were (1) the amount of time spent in the target language environment, and (2) the time when language study began. In other words, an early start and perseverance in the language along with meaningful exposure in an environment where the language is used naturally for communication proved to be crucial factors for optimal acquisition.

In the two decades since the Carroll report, others have also documented, both anecdotally and empirically, gains of dramatic proportions in the language skills of students returning from overseas. In 1975, Hoeh and Spuck examined the effects of a brief travel-study venture on the foreign language skills of fifteen high school French students, all with varying backgrounds ranging from two to five years of classroom instruction. Results of testing showed significant gains were made in listening and reading skills to the degree that listening comprehension scores improved by three-fifths of a year over traditional classroom norms and reading comprehension improved by one-half year. (Hoeh & Spuck, 1975)

In a more recent study, Armstrong (1982) tested sixty U.S. students in listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Testing was accomplished preceding and following their participation in a seven-week intensive language program in Mexico. Measured gains in three of the skill areas—listening, reading, and writing—exceeded gains normally expected in a full year of classroom Spanish. Oral gains, always more difficult to quantify, were measured on a five-point scale by a system of teacher ratings. Students were evaluated at the beginning of their study abroad and again at the conclusion. Since each rating represented a broad range of proficiency, precise pinpointing of oral gains was not possible. More interesting and impressive, however, were students' own perceptions as to their oral skill development while abroad.

Three to four years following their initial sojourn, 180 returnees who had studied overseas while still in high school were surveyed with regard to the impact of that early experience. (Armstrong, 1984) Of 124 responding, 73 percent reported that as undergraduates they continued studying the language of the region visited. Moreover, one third began the study of additional languages in college and an equal number had traveled abroad again within three years of their initial experience overseas. On an open-ended item, a majority of respondents pointed out that the greatest lasting benefit of the study abroad had been the increased language fluency acquired as a result of their cultural immersion and language exposure in the target culture.

Other studies cite similarly interesting results. Most recently, Koester (1985) reported that among 8,000 U.S. students surveyed upon returning, 60 percent planned additional overseas travel or study within the next two years. Furthermore, they felt that their first experience abroad had made them more conscious of international events while improving their knowledge of U.S. culture, to say nothing of their language development. Baker (1983), likewise, observed that returnees from B.Y.U. overseas study programs not only became more confident of their language skills, but also were more interested in taking additional language courses. Lamet and Lamet (1982) found that many students thought that skills attained abroad enhanced their job potential. More than half believed that overseas experience confirmed their career plans, while as many as 40 percent of the returnees in another study became language majors or had double majors that included a foreign language. (Armstrong, 1984)

Against this backdrop of evidence portraying many of the positive benefits accruing from study abroad, we are witnessing a surge of recent national and regional reports supporting the need for more humanities and multicultural experiences in the college curriculum.[1] The spotlight is frequently on foreign languages and international studies. At the University of Arkansas at Little Rock, the administration has issued a call to internationalize the campus; committees are scurrying about to review and revise the curriculum; and a Blue Ribbon Panel of educators and experts, citizens and consultants, avidly anticipates fulfilling its charge to define the parameters of the baccalaureate degree for students of the twenty-first century. Everyone is in a revival spirit, and as a result, we see new programs emerging and new emphases challenging time-worn ideas.

One manifestation of this new outlook is evidenced in the development of the UALR Scholars Program, an honors curriculum for outstanding students. Based on the rationale that overseas language study in an appropriate cultural setting can be an exciting and efficient way to acquire cultural understanding and language proficiency in general, and oral fluency in particular, this new program which began in 1984-85, combines a summer of language study abroad with an oral proficiency requirement to be satisfied when students reach Intermediate-Mid proficiency on the ACTFL/ETS rating scale.[2]

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[1] See *Involvement in Learning: Realizing the Potential of American Higher Education*, final report of the Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education, U.S. Department of Education, October 1984, and William J. Bennett's *To Reclaim a Legacy: A Report on the Humanities in Higher Education*, published by NEH in November 1984. Also of interest are regional reports such as the Southern Regional Education Board's 1985 report entitled *Access to Quality Undergraduate Education* prepared by SREB's Commission for Educational Quality.

[2] Performance descriptions for each level are given in the publication *ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines: A Design for Measuring and Communicating Foreign Language Proficiency*, which is available from ACTFL, 579 Broadway, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York 10706

Still in its infancy, the Scholars Program model is the result of cooperation among a cross section of faculty appointed to design a scholarship program that would attract talented in-state students who are frequently lured to more prestigious out-of-state institutions. Program creators were eager for participants to have the opportunity to develop social and survival skills in a second language, yet they felt compelled to suggest a modest proficiency goal since many Arkansas students arrive on campus with scanty or no background in a foreign language. The idea of a proficiency-based requirement, in itself, represented both a challenge and an innovative step forward for the University and for Arkansas, a step they fortunately dared to take. The language and overseas study components emanating from committee efforts and deliberations are as follows:

> In the course of study, each Scholar will attain an Intermediate-Mid proficiency rating on the academic ACTFL/ETS scale as determined by an oral examination. This proficiency will enable the student to satisfy some survival needs and some limited social demands in a country where English is not the native language.
>
> During the summer between the first and second year each Scholar will have an opportunity to participate in a study experience abroad with the goal of firsthand experience in both another culture and a language other than English. If the student is unable to participate in an overseas program, she or he may satisfy the language requirement by enrollment in a language program approved by the Coordinator of the Scholars Program, in consultation with the Department of Foreign Languages. A scholarship will be available to all students for language study abroad.

With the above requirement firmly in place, the Scholars Program became a reality in the fall of 1984 with the arrival of twenty eager freshmen participants. The first year was not without the usual problems. Since Scholars were taking a formidable array of courses, which included topics such as History of Ideas, Rhetoric and Communication, Science and Society, and other interdisciplinary offerings instead of standard fare, they faced a substantial academic challenge. And while program framers felt they had been careful in drafting an appropriate language requirement, academic advisors failed to recommend to entering Scholars that they enroll in foreign language courses in preparation for their summer abroad, which was to follow the freshman year. The advising error was discovered at mid-semester, too late to rectify entirely. Consequently, some students did not begin language study until the second semester. Nevertheless, program officials allowed their participation in the overseas experience while vowing that all future Scholars would be advised to begin or continue foreign language study upon entering the University.

Following the first academic year, two Scholars withdrew from the program and others failed to maintain their required grade point average, leaving twelve eligible for participation in overseas study. The University of Arkansas at Little Rock has no programs operating in France or Germany and no new sites were established to provide language learning opportunities abroad. Instead, students were simply piggybacked onto programs of other universities, such as the Rutgers German Program in Konstanz and an intensive French program in Caen.

Even before Scholars departed for their summer study in Europe, the concern on campus was that returning Scholars would need to be tested by an oral interview. The responsibility weighed heavily on faculty in the Department of Foreign Languages, because in Arkansas there were no certified testers. In fact, at this writing, there are still no certified testers in Arkansas, Mississippi, Missouri, or Oklahoma. While progress is being made towards their training and certification, much remains to be done nationally. In Spanish, for example, there are but thirty-eight testers nationwide. In order to obviate this problem in Arkansas, UALR's Department of Foreign Languages secured a training grant from a campus-based group, which enabled it to host an ACTFL Oral Proficiency Testers Workshop in the fall of 1985. Twenty-four colleagues participated, ten of whom were UALR faculty. At this writing all are in the post-workshop phase of their training and many hope to become certified testers in ESL, French, German, and Spanish.

During the four-day workshop UALR Scholars returning from abroad were interviewed and rated by certified testers and their trainees. Ratings ranged from Novice-Mid, for one student who had taken only one semester of French prior to going overseas, to Intermediate-High, for a student with some high school French and two college courses in French. Results were as follows:

Student	*Rating*
Alice	Novice-Mid
Betty	Novice-High
Carmen	Intermediate-Low
Donna	Intermediate-Low
Eric	Intermediate-Low
Fran	Intermediate-Low
Gary	Intermediate-Mid

Hannah	Intermediate-Mid
Irma	Intermediate-Mid
Jack	Intermediate-High
Keith	unratable sample
Larry	unratable sample

Three students came out on target with Intermediate-Mid ratings. Two were unratable because of errors in the interviewer's elicitation procedure. They now await retesting. Others not meeting the requirement have been advised to continue foreign language study until they reach Intermediate-Mid proficiency.

Finally, with regard to the new Scholars class entering the University in the fall of 1986, all but two enrolled in foreign language classes. While anticipating study next summer in Salzburg or Strasbourg, they are also benefiting from advice of their sophomore peers in the Scholars Program—advice from Arkansas travelers who, as expected, are already discussing plans for further ventures abroad as soon as circumstances allow.

In an effort to better prepare participants for their early overseas experience, the Department of Foreign Languages is now contemplating offering intensive language sequences for future Scholars. As the program grows to accommodate as many as eighty participants, many talented Arkansas students can expect greater opportunities for "getting it all together"—cultural understanding, oral proficiency, and study abroad.

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4

Developing Functional Proficiency in Writing

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The value of a well-integrated writing program cannot be underestimated in today's proficiency-oriented second-language classroom. One may well lament the upper level students' inability to express themselves in writing, only to realize that little has been done in the lower level courses to systematically develop the writing skill. A student who has only done written grammar drills and some copying and dictation for four semesters cannot be expected to suddenly write creatively as a result of that practice. Skill development, by definition, indicates a progression of activities, which in the case of writing indicates a movement from the more mechanical to the more creative. Given the difficulty many students have writing in their native language, one can begin to appreciate the difficulties inherent in the development of writing proficiency in the second language. As foreign language teachers we must not presume that there will be a transfer of skill in writing from the native to the second language, since, in fact, there may be nothing to transfer. Instead, a carefully structured sequence of instruction and practice in writing should be an integral component of the second-language classroom at all levels.

Writing, especially at the lower levels, is basically a reinforcing activity essential to the development of fully functional ability in the language. The increased push for oral proficiency can be complemented by well-integrated writing exercises. These exercises, by graphically representing what the students are hearing and saying, integrate all skills and provide contact with a variety of forms of the language.

One of the major barriers any beginning language student faces is speaking in the classroom situation. Well-planned written activities provide extra time for preparation, correction, and assimilation of language prior to in-class oral activities. Thus prepared, the student has more confidence and performs at a higher level with less stress.

The occasional composition, assigned without preparation or clear directions, will most often result in frustration for both the student and the teacher. A series of short, text-adaptable, proficiency-based writing activities that reinforce aural, oral, and reading skills throughout the basic course levels can help alleviate the difficulties involved when time and materials may pose problems.

The most timely basis for the organization of sample writing activities in a systematic program is the *ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines* (1982). The terms Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior used to designate proficiency levels should not be seen as being equivalent to a certain number of semesters or years of second-language instruction, since functional proficiency does not equate with the amount of grammar covered. While a student obviously needs grammar to communicate beyond the most basic single-word utterances, the simple introduction of grammar *per se* does not guarantee development of this ability. The proficiency levels indicate ability to function communicatively within a limited context, and with a certain degree of accuracy. Typical writing activities at each level are as follows: Novice—ability to use fixed, memorized expressions to supply lists, complete simple forms, etc.; Intermediate—ability to meet survival needs when commenting on personal and familiar topics in brief compositions and letters using longer, more complex sentences; Advanced—ability to meet routine social needs, describe and narrate in the past, present, and future, and take notes, etc.; and Superior—ability to present and defend points of view, hypothesize and discuss abstract topics in memos, research papers, and social and business correspondence. While the above lising is very general, Sally Sieloff Magnan (1985) provides a detailed discussion of the *Guidelines*, possible revisions, and the necessity of developing a proficiency test in writing equivalent to the ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Interview currently in use.

The development of writing must follow a sequence very similar to speaking in that the student must have time to practice using the language in a variety of ways. Depending on the texts available, many writing activities can be generated at each level of second-language instruction.

The First Year

During the first year a majority of the activities can be based on the dialogue. These activities will begin with the manipulation of a lexical item such as the use of *gustar* in a modified drill situation, which in turn will lead to more creative use of the language; in this case a short composition on personal likes and dislikes. Original dialogues, role-playing skits, summaries, and compositions based on previously memorized and practiced materials help bridge the gap between the "drill" and "creative" language use. The topics for these activities can come directly from the text dialogues and related real-life situations. While the activities will be used sequentially at first, it is possible to repeat certain ones over the course of the semester. The basic exercise may appear the same, but the context and complexity of the language involved will increase in an almost geometric manner as the student moves from the manipulation of structure and form toward the creative use of language for meaningful communication.

Writing in the first year is essentially a reinforcing activity related to memorized materials and high-frequency vocabulary appearing in dialogues and short reading selections. Since most beginning language texts present dialogues at regular intervals, it is quite possible to develop a series of writing activities using the dialogues as the core. A suggested sequence of activities follows.

1. Copying the dialogue to focus attention on spelling, punctuation, and structure.
2. Dictation of dialogue vocabulary words, phrases, and complete sentences to help with thought groups and recognition of grammar in context.
3. Dialogue segments to be completed in writing as dialogue is read aloud to aid in developing listening acuity and context use.
4. Written dialogue provided with words or lines omitted to elicit use of context and memory.
5. Student-originated dialogues cued by situations in English or by pictures and drawings related to the topics being presented.
6. Questions on the dialogue, both orally and in writing, begin the development of narrative.
7. Summary of the dialogue situation in paragraph form develops narrative, reading, and organizational capability.
8. The summary of the dialogue can be read to the group as students take notes in English or the target language, thus requiring the "fusion" of reading, speaking, listening, and writing. (Elkins, Kalivoda, and Morain, 1972)

While one does not expect a high level of creativity at the Novice level, the ability to use patterns and memorized materials does provide an opportunity for the imaginative student to create in the second language. Frequent misspellings can be expected, and a variety of sound/letter combination errors will probably occur. Regular dictation and emphasis on accuracy in written exercises can help the student prepare for the next course.

The following sample exercises illustrate the versatility of dialogue-based writing activities. In this case the original dialogue deals with tourists in a restaurant.

Step One: Pairs of students receive situation cards, produce "scripts" and present the resulting conversation to the class as a mini-drama.

Model: Student 1—You are in a restaurant.
Order soup, salad, chicken, and a bottle of wine. For dessert you want fruit and tea. You also want to pay with a credit card.
Student 2—You are the waiter/waitress.
Take the order, be very polite, and tell the customer the restaurant doesn't accept credit cards. You do, however, accept traveler's checks.
A possible result: (In the target language)
Waiter: May I help you?
Customer: Yes, please, I'd like soup, salad, chicken, and a bottle of wine. For dessert I'd like fruit and tea. Do you accept credit cards?
Waiter: Very well, I'm sorry we do not accept credit cards, but we do accept traveler's checks.
Customer: That's fine, thank you.

Step Two: The teacher asks a series of questions related to the situation presented. The student audience responds in the target language.

Step Three: Each student writes a short summary of what happened in the conversation, using the vocabulary and grammar structures they have heard and used orally. These summaries can be turned in and marked for errors.

It should be noted that the preceding series of exercises can easily be adapted to more advanced course levels as desired.

The Second Year

Writing in the second year can include a wide variety of activities, many of which are related to the solidification of basic accuracy in grammar and spelling. While the student still depends to a great extent on memorized material, the ability to write more creatively will be developed. The transition from direct to indirect discourse practiced in the first-year dialogue exercises begins the development of the structure necessary for more creative and coherent paragraphs. This process continues during the second year.

Most second-year texts contain readings on current events and cultural topics along with a systematic grammar review. The readings can serve as the basis for a series of writing activities that also incorporate aural/oral skills. The following sequence of activities moves from those basically using a manipulative grammar drill to the practice of language in a more creative approach.

1. A series of sentence elements, such as subject, verb, and adverb are supplied, and the student writes a sentence practicing finite grammar points.
2. Sentences in scrambled word order are correctly rewritten to practice syntax.
3. A paragraph based on the reading selection can be altered according to person or tense to practice specific grammar points and develop organization.
4. A series of sentences in scrambled order is rewritten to form coherent, well-organized narration. A series of paragraphs can also be used in the same way.
5. Guided compositions are written according to a series of verbs or questions related to a single topic, such as the daily schedule, a favorite TV program, a trip, etc.
6. Compositions are written based on a thematic picture. Students may first discuss the pictures in class and then write a description or story.
7. Partial sentences are provided, and students complete them according to context and internalized grammar.
8. Cultural situations are described, and the students generate dialogues for in-class presentation. The student audience takes notes and writes summaries of what has been presented.
9. Several paragraphs are read by the student, who takes notes. A synopsis is written and read to the group. In this way the students practice reading for content and information relay, as well as aural/oral skill.

It is very useful to have one thematic picture or illustration as the basis for a sequence of activities using the "spiral" approach for grammar and vocabulary reinforcement. The following activities are based on a series of line drawings depicting the activities of a family's daily routine.

1. Oral description in the present tense reviews the necessary vocabulary and provides the basis for the introduction of past tenses and their uses.
2. The students discuss what happened to the family yesterday. (preterite/imperfect tense usage)
3. Assign a composition as homework. The compositions are turned in and errors are marked. Revision is done outside of class and final grades are given.
4. New vocabulary, for trips, etc., is introduced. Students discuss trips they have taken.
5. A composition on the trip is written and graded.
6. New verb forms such as commands are introduced. Possible orders regarding preparation for a trip, etc., are practiced.
7. The process continues with constant review and reinforcement.

In order to develop writing beyond the simple sentence, some special vocabulary and structural guidance must be provided. Complex sentences will require the introduction of conjunctions and relative pronouns, among other elements. The resulting complex sentences then need to be related to each other and the paragraphs that follow. The necessary vocabulary for enumeration (*primer, en primer lugar, entonces, en fin*, etc.); addition (*de nuevo, además*, etc.); sequencing (*así, como resultado*, etc.); explanation (*es decir, en otras palabras*, etc.); illustration (*por ejemplo*); contrast (*en cambio, sin embargo, al mismo tiempo*, etc.); may be introduced as needed through short vocabulary lists and sample sentences as necessary. A composition comparing and contrasting two pictures, situations or cultures, for example, would require a presentation or review of the 'more than,' 'less than,' 'as much as,' 'better than,'-type structures of the target language.

As the content of the student composition moves into territory not necessarily found in the text, some dictionary-use exercises need to be included with the assignments. The importance of vocabulary must be emphasized and finding the "proper" word can prove confusing if no experience has been provided (e.g., *Estoy espalda* results from attempting to express "I am back.")

The Third Year and Beyond

During the third and fourth year and beyond, high school and college courses will differ in that college courses tend to have more specific orientation: conversation, composition, grammar review, culture, and literature. While content may vary, the basic goals for writing development will be similar. Students will be learning to express and defend opinions, produce cohesive narration and personal correspondence, and control less-structured grammar.

Depending on the course orientation, the following series of activities can be useful, once again with the textbook as the major stimulus.

1. Listen to a dialogue or taped narration or speech and take notes and write a summary. This is excellent preparation for classes where the lecture is given in the second language (culture, civilization, etc.).
2. Oral interviews are taped and the student transcribes and corrects the resulting script. This provides second-language practice in all skills.
3. Students develop an outline and then write a more extensive composition where they express and defend their opinion on specified topics (women's rights, political situations, etc.).
4. Reaction papers provide an introduction to literary criticism through personal reaction and opinion.
5. The pastiche can be used to help develop specific styles in prose. A simple short story, for example, supplies the basis for the students' effort.
6. A specific cultural situation, such as the proper type of gift to give, is used as the basis for "culture capsule" dialogues written and presented in class.
7. Book reports can be written and presented in class orally, thus practicing reading for meaning and synthesis of information.
8. A variety of letters can be written to provide "real" language use (personal letters); specialized vocabulary (business letters); and to practice expressing feelings (sympathy letters, "Ann Landers" letters, etc.).

Additional Activities

Although the activities suggested thus far have been grouped according to year of language study, it is quite possible to adapt most activities to any language level within reason. There are several additional activities that can be used throughout the study of the language, depending on the number of students involved and the complexity of the program set-up. Compositions can be written in groups at any level, with students helping each other formulate a coherent final product. The class can also contribute sentences to a single composition written on the board or the overhead projector by the teacher. This activity is especially useful when a new structure such as the concept of the preterite and imperfect is introduced for the first time. Pen pals, whether from the foreign country or from another language class, can also be used to advantage. The one-to-one communication drives home the importance of accurate vocabulary and grammar. The teacher may serve as a consultant if severe problems arise, but in general the students should take the responsibility for effective communication. The journal has been used in English classes and other humanities courses to record personal growth, reactions and ideas. In a recent article Judith Melton (1983) discusses a variety of uses of the journal in language classes, especially in those courses where the writing component may not be so strong. The journal provides a record of the process of writing development. Content is the most important factor, with grammar correction done occasionally by the teacher, and often by the students as their ability increases. The journal allows for experimentation with the language, and the student has control. This process increases linguistic confidence and reinforces language in a non-threatening way. As with any acquired ability, practice does indeed help make perfect.

Grading

There are a variety of components that must be included in the grading of written work. Regardless of the level at which students are performing, they are applying previously learned material, as well as new structures. Content, accuracy, and function must all be evaluated. Students must be guided so that they learn to express their ideas using the language within their grasp. If instructions are carefully formulated, with possible errors mentioned in advance, the final product may well exceed expectations. The importance of constructive guidance cannot be ignored in writing development any more than it can in the areas of reading, listening, and speaking.

Grading written work has always posed difficulties. The teacher has had to worry about the time required for evaluation, and the student has had to deal with papers covered with red marks. Claire Gaudiani (1983) suggests writing from the very beginning in language study, with the bulk of the correction taking place through a variety of peer-editing and rewriting techniques. The teacher collects the assignments, circles the errors, and returns the papers to the students. The students, in groups of two or three discuss and edit their papers, which are then resubmitted for final grading. Students can often solve problems on another's paper that they do not see on their own. This active participation by the students improves learning and helps them recognize the process involved in writing. The teacher can make note of specific errors for subsequent class discussion and follow-up practice in the target language. In-class correction of written work can also be done using the chalkboard, overhead projections, dittoes of previously written student compositions (without correction and without the student name), and the student exchange of compositions for at-home editing. In addition, variations of rewriting incorporated into a system of individual student-teacher conferences, peer editing, group corrections, and other activities that have been used in native-language classes over the years to improve writing skills can be implemented in the second-language classroom quite effectively.

Grading compositions objectively is very difficult. Although grammar is a major consideration, organization, style, and content must also be evaluated. Whatever grading formula is applied, the student must be encouraged to use a variety of vocabulary and structure. Experimentation within the language should be fostered and rewarded when possible. A useful approach for the student who has completed his composition and the teacher who grades it is a process of experiencing the content before correcting the grammar. The student edits the content before proofreading the grammatical aspects of the work. In this way "missing" ideas or incorrect vocabulary can be remedied before the final grammar check. When the teacher receives the work, it is read through without marking errors, and the grade for content and communication is given. Then the grammar correction and grading take place. Placing the major emphasis on content increases the students' desire to write purposefully, instead of writing only that which they know is "safe" (i.e., correct). This process neither condones nor encourages sloppy grammar; it does encourage language practice, which in turn causes improvement on all levels.

Regardless of the approach used to grade written work, feedback must be supplied as quickly as possible in order for the student to realize the complete benefit of the evaluative procedure. The longer the time between completion of the work and its return, the less impact there will be on the learning process. Students appreciate feedback and increase their efforts when they see that the teacher cares enough to evaluate the work carefully and completely. The importance of positive feedback on the composition must be emphasized. Excessive "constructive" criticism becomes a negative factor and actually discourages continual effort on the part of the student. A composition containing a myriad of grammar errors may express a unique point of view or tell a funny story. Appreciative comments on the teacher's part will encourage and motivate the student.

Summary and Conclusion

Development of second-language writing proficiency should begin during the first year of study. A series of activities based on the dialogues normally found in a first-year text provides the practice needed for the acquisition of the skill necessary for simple sentence communication based on high-frequency vocabulary and memorized material. During the second year a variety of activities based on the readings normally included at this level continues the development of writing proficiency. The student will be able to write more coherent paragraphs based on personal experiences and other familiar topics. The students in the third-year courses and beyond will continue to express themselves on a variety of topics depending on the orientation of the specific course. At this level the skills needed to express opinions and defend ideas will be practiced. Throughout the language program, regardless of length, all four skills must be developed.

A well-integrated writing program is a vital component of any proficiency-oriented program. It is not necessary to wait until the third year to consider the possibility of creative writing. Systematic writing activities help reinforce the listening, speaking, and reading skills by providing the opportunity for review, correction, and assimilation of the second language. Early implementation of constructive written exercises emphasizing communication helps develop a strong base for future proficiency. Non-graded written work, student interaction and integrated four-skill development build confidence and allow the student freedom to communicate constructively. The sequential movement from manipulation of language patterns to creative, purposeful expression in the second language helps attain one of the principal goals of serious language study—the development of functional proficiency in writing.

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5

The Proficiency-Based German Class:

Experiences and Perspectives

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The dire need for internationalizing education in the United States has finally been recognized, not just by educators and by the business community, but also by our government. The reasons for the growing interest in foreign language training are varied. Intra-nationally speaking, language study has been proposed as "a cure for provincialism" (Starr, 1976) and as an agent that serves to increase linguistic awareness and, thus, to improve native language competence. Inter-nationally speaking, language is a medium of verbal exchange as well as a medium of insight into the culture. Consequently, language study achieves a double objective: it prepares the way for transnational communication and transcultural sensitivity. Both are vital for the continued growth of our nation and its leadership role in several respects. *International relations*: Our functional illiteracy in foreign languages has not only adversely affected our diplomatic as well as basic human relations to other countries, but it is an embarrassment and a contributing factor to our image of arrogance around the world. *Security*: The National Advisory Board on International Education stressed the crucial role of foreign languages for this nation's security, a view which was repeatedly amplified by government representatives who claimed that the deficiencies in language training are a major hazard to our national security. *Trade*: The fact that three-quarters of our wheat is sold abroad, that 200 of the 250 largest multinational corporations are U.S. owned, and that 20,000 American firms engage in export of products or services to foreign markets demonstrates dramatically the importance of trade for our economy and the need for skills that enable us to communicate in the international arena of commerce. *Tourism*: The number of foreign tourists in this country has grown by more than 1,000 percent in the past two decades. In fact, 1980 was the first year in which foreign visitors to the U.S.

outnumbered Americans traveling abroad. If we want to make these travelers comfortable here and tap the markets related to the tourist industry, we need to be able to welcome our visitors in their native tongue. *Employment*: More and more professions, ranging from social work to nursing, from secretarial sciences to engineering, are beginning to recognize the value of foreign languages and are looking increasingly for employees with high levels of proficiency. According to The President's Commission on Foreign Languages (1979), there existed 29,000 positions within the Federal Government alone which required knowledge of a foreign language.

In response to these and the other needs, many voices began calling for the addition of an "international dimension" to our education programs and for a renewal of foreign language training and international studies in schools and colleges. The 1979 President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies and the more recent Commission on Excellence in Education have done a great service by making our deficiencies in foreign languages a national issue. Efforts are under way to help realize the demands formulated by these commissions, such as the Title VI of the Higher Education Act, Part B, which makes available funds for business and international education programs. Impressive strides have been achieved on the regional and local level where foreign languages are increasingly introduced as a compulsory area of study in high schools and colleges.

These developments are encouraging. However, it does not suffice to simply observe and enumerate these gains. We now have the responsibility to maintain this momentum and to provide a learning environment that satisfies the needs so widely recognized. Otherwise, this movement towards internationalizing our education system is going to die away like so many other educational reform efforts. The first order of business is a rigorous critical appraisal of our present activities.

We will have to honestly face up to shortcomings in regard to teaching objectives, strategies and tools, to assessment principles and testing mechanisms. Next we will have to redefine our goals and, subsequently, revise our curricula, our textbooks, our instructional techniques and our testing methods. Fortunately, established institutions of language learning have already done a lot of legwork in this direction, and their findings and accomplishments are at our disposal right now. We are particularly thinking of the efforts made by ACTFL and ETS in defining proficiency guidelines and establishing a reliable mechanism for testing oral proficiency.

Our goals in foreign language teaching have always been legitimate and do not need to be changed in a wholesale way. We want to continue to develop the four basic skills, listening and reading comprehension, speaking and writing, though not necessarily in this order. And we want to continue to infuse our courses with a good dose of the foreign culture. However, our tangible, step-by-step objectives leading to this set of targets require careful thought and drastic revision. We need to ask ourselves what we can do to improve our methods and materials in order to achieve the best results possible.

A major factor to be considered in the process of revision is that of material context. So far, we have generally oriented our courses on the introductory level towards issues of tourist and student life, at the intermediate and advanced level toward literature. This approach may meet the needs of our majors, a declining clientele, but it does not satisfy the need of the majority of students who are going to pursue careers in business, industry, law, technology, or some kind of service. Our curricula will have to take into account the interests of these students, provide texts and materials addressing their prospective professional realm, and incorporate the linguistic and lexical items characteristic of these disciplines. If other disciplines require languages and make use of our services, we should have the courtesy to take their needs into consideration. After all, it is one of the principles of international relations that one be understanding of and accommodating toward others' needs. This maxim should also apply to interdisciplinary relations.

Furthermore, we will have to develop more efficient and effective strategies to achieve good language skills that can be used in the work place. We believe that no one would argue in earnest that our current approach is satisfactory in developing skills with which the candidate can actually function in real-life situations. Admittedly, some changes need to be made.

For the first time in the history of the profession, foreign language teachers now have available a tool with which they can accurately measure the speaking ability of any student. This tool, the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), developed by ACTFL and ETS on the basis of the testing procedure long used by federal agencies, is in reality a highly structured conversation, which for the student is as natural as possible, but for the interviewer, especially at the lower levels, is a demanding exercise in eliciting, listening, evaluating, and structuring the discourse flow. The OPI elicits a language sample that indicates which *functions* a candidate can perform in which *contexts* and with what *accuracy*. The functions are defined globally by the *ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines* (1982) as common tasks in language use that native speakers would perform under various circumstances, such as asking questions, describing, narrating, and supporting opinion. (Lowe, 1983) The functions are arranged hierarchically, the lower level functions being those that one might expect learners to acquire early in their experience with the second language, the high level ones being acquired much later. The contexts and content of the OPI range from the concrete to the abstract, from the ego-centered to all possible topics of conversation in human society. The third compoment, accuracy, refers to the success of the communication act, that is, whether the candidate has minimally gotten his message across, or has even partially or completely miscommunicated due to such things as poor pronunciation or confused grammar and vocabulary, or, on the other extreme, speaks in a way very similar to an educated native speaker.

Performance during the OPI is compared with written descriptions of levels of performance in spoken language, the *ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines* (1982). Since these guidelines are now reasonably well known in the profession, a brief summary of the different levels of speaking ability will here suffice to suggest some of the possible curricular implications. On the ACTFL/ETS academic scale, four major levels of speaking ability are differentiated: Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior. The Novice candidates speak mainly in words and memorized phrases. They recycle what the interviewer says with frequent errors and demonstrate no real ability to create with the langauge. The next higher level speakers, the Intermediates, are characterized by their ability to speak in sentences that they have created to accomplish so-called survival tasks. Each sentence tends to be a discrete entity unto itself and shows little evidence of being integrated into a narrative whole, which is precisely what the Advanced speaker can do. Advanced level speakers can make successful reference to different time frames and speak on the paragraph level, accomplishing the function of narrating and describing in reference to concrete topics. The Superior speakers work on the discourse level, organizing whole paragraphs into a unified flow. As such, they can state and support opinion, hypothesize, and deal with abstract topics, using forms and a lexicon comparable to what a native speaker would use to accomplish the same tasks.

The OPI demonstrates a high degree of inter-rater (tester) reliability, which insures its usefulness as a measuring instrument. (*Oral Proficiency Testing Manual*, pp. 12-14) Testers must attend a four-day workshop, following which they complete an initial set of ten practice interviews, which are evaluated by a trainer, and then administer and rate fifteen more interviews, five of which are reviewed by the trainer. Of these five interviews, all must be within the major level (Novice, Intermediate, etc.) and three ratings must agree precisely with the trainer's evaluation of the taped interview. No interview in this last set can represent an unratable sample if the new tester is to be certified. This procedure insures the accuracy of test results on the OPIs administered by the newly trained testers.

The *Proficiency Guidelines* present teachers with an evaluative tool, not with a prepackaged curriculum. They do *not* prescribe any given teaching method or approach, nor do they indicate length of time necessary to attain a specified level. As such, they can only evaluate what students at any point in their learning are able to do with the second language. They do remind us, however, that learning a language is much more than the manipulation of a certain number of grammatical forms and lexical items. As Heidi Byrnes has written, "a proficiency orientation. . .focuses on *use*—on what a native speaker of the language is expected to do and does in a natural setting as it occurs in the culture." (Byrnes, 1984, p. 195) This proficiency orientation does suggest that a sequence based only on the control of a discrete number of grammatical forms needs to be at very least supplemented and revised to incorporate the development of functional skills in various contexts. It does suggest a goal-oriented curriculum in which clear, but general statements of expected student performance at the end of each course are articulated in terms of the functions the students should be able to perform, the contexts in which they can perform them, the content that they can be expected to treat, the degree of accuracy they will demonstrate. (Medley, 1985) From these goal statements, specific outcome statements can be derived to map out a step-by-step means to attain the goals in the classroom. Once the goals have been established, the outcome statements provide the natural sequencing of the functions taught in a likely sequencing of topics. (Byrnes, 1984)

In this paper, we will examine standard university language classroom activities and textbooks, exploring their strength and weaknesses. We will describe several approaches that were taken to inject a traditional curriculum with some proficiency-oriented ingredients and report on the frustrating results. And finally we intend to outline the principles, structure, and content of a course designed from scratch, following the proficiency guidelines as defined by ACTFL and taking into consideration the principles outlined above.

The standard university course in beginning German is primarily structured around the blocks of grammar introduced. Each chapter is given a topical orientation that is more or less consistently followed through in the development of the dialogues, exercises, and reading materials. In the textbooks themselves, the authors rarely set goals for instruction, and if they do, they are written only in the vaguest possible terms, such as "an introduction to the essential elements of German grammar and basic vocabulary." It is difficult for an instructor to apply to the course his own notions of effective teaching or stray from the textbook too far because later chapters presuppose materials from earlier ones. All too often the book is in the hands of an inexperienced graduate student who clings to the text as his only defense. As such, the textbook determines both the curriculum and the syllabus.

All available introductory German language textbooks are woefully inadequate to meet the goals set by a proficiency-oriented approach to instruction. In fact, they are inadequate to obtain almost any truly satisfactory results. In structure and content alike, even the most recent editions continue to adhere to outdated pedagogical and methodological principles. Their uniformly uninspired approach forces the instructor to follow a pace that is too fast because of the inordinate amount of material to be mastered. In regard to vocabulary, for example, our current textbook (Dollenmayer, 1984) requires 115 words to be learned in lesson five, seven weeks into the first semester, with no distinction between learning for recognition and learning for recall.

The grammar orientation of most first-year German textbooks reflects the widespread belief in the profession that the entire grammar must be taught during the first year and reviewed in the second when the students start reading literature in the second language. The first-year course ends up moving so rapidly that the past tense, for example, is introduced before the students can even control the present tense endings. Cases are piled up in German to the point where some of our students have even come away with the idea that all the nouns in a given sentence must be in the same case. Since the entire spectrum of grammar is to be covered, items are necessarily included that are useless because they cannot be applied to speech production at this level. For instance, all conjunctions have to be learned, even though many of them are not even found frequently in speech of native speakers, such as "while" or "although." The passive voice and all subjunctives are introduced and practiced even though these grammar categories are mostly used by advanced or superior speakers and cannot be expected to be mastered by novice or intermediate speakers. Grammar is also not distinguished according to its applicability to various language skills. For instance, the simple past tense (preterite) in German is used almost exclusively in writing. There is, at the beginning level, no need for reproduction of this tense in oral communication. It is a grammatical item to be recognized, not to be learned actively. The same is true for the genitive, the future tenses, certain demonstrative pronouns, among other features. The reason for this grammar orientation lies close at hand: grammar can be easily taught and the student's achievement in learning the material can be easily measured by discrete item tests. The whole process is neat and clean and fairly easy to implement.

Reading texts are usually created by the textbook author for the stereotypical student. They are, without exception, boring if not insulting to even the modest intellect: Exchange student meets German student with whom he shares his trials and tribulations while trying to cope with the strange German ways. More advanced chapters venture into revised literary texts which are of little concern to the majority of our students who do not major in language and literature. Most such texts are unsuitable for learning to read as they confine themselves to material learned up to that point and, due to their reduced linguistic and informational quality, are void of elements that allow predictions as to what is to come and, consequently, make comprehension unnecessarily difficult.

Workbooks and laboratory materials are equally deplorable in most cases. Most exercises are not only ludicrous in terms of intended meaning but also non-productive because they require totally artificial language production. To practice adjective endings, one book offers the following statement: "I like fresh vegetables, but I cannot eat fresh bread, fresh butter, fresh fish and fresh eggs." (Crean, et. al., 1981, p. 351) Usually the students are required to jump from one topic to another within one exercise unit (e.g., "Why is Thomas going into the bookstore?" followed by, "What does the customs official want to see?") because rarely is a context established that allows for nearly authentic speech production and is, thus, conducive to internalizing the new material.

Recently, many textbooks have claimed a "communicative orientation" by the addition of so-called communication exercises, but these same books retain the full inventory of grammar while adding on yet more material that is supposed to "personalize" the instruction. These attempts are mostly cosmetic because they are only add-ons and frequently do not thematically mesh with the chapter in which they are found. They often require the students to perform functions that go far beyond their linguistic, if not their cognitive abilities (e.g., the expression of an opinion about the welfare system in the Federal Republic of Germany). Even so-called personalized questions are frequently not contextualized so that the students are required to complete mental leaps as the topic of conversation turns from where they live to their major at the university, to the ages of their brothers and sisters, to their opinions about their German class. It would certainly tax a native speaker to follow such disjointed conversation, say, at a cocktail party. How much more does lack of context frustrate our students because they have difficulty both understanding the spoken/written language and expressing themselves. The sheer bulk of the textbook also means that little time is left over for conversational activities, especially when the book is in the hands of inexperienced graduate assistants.

Due to such shortcomings in textbooks and our subsequent inadequate teaching strategies, development of usable communicative skills falls short of the most modest of standards. By the time the few students who are sufficiently courageous enter into the intermediate level courses, they still cannot express themselves comfortably about everyday topics, their reading and writing skills are deficient, and their motivation is seriously impaired.

Our dissatisfaction with language teaching under the limitations imposed by inadequate textbooks is shared by colleagues nationwide. Professor Wilga M. Rivers, Harvard University, addressing the state of health in the teaching of foreign languages, or rather the alarming lack thereof, demanded that "language teaching can no longer be talking about grammar, turning over pages and pages of boring exercises, and wading through dull and tedious readings." (Rivers, 1985, p. 38) She suggests, instead, that authentic materials and a proficiency orientation be used in the classroom.

During fall semester 1984, the authors first planned and taught an intensive beginning German course in which they incorporated some of the insights suggested by a proficiency orientation. This seven-credit-hour course met five days each week, MWF for 50 minutes, TTH for 75 minutes. In addition, students were assigned to one of three one-hour per week conversation sessions with a native speaker graduate assistant. They met at a time convenient for the students involved. The course was scheduled at the noon hour so as to attract professional people from the community. The teaching responsibility was divided so that one person taught the MWF sequence, the other TTH. The fifteen-student enrollment consisted of approximately 60 percent traditional students and 40 percent non-traditional, the later group including two housewives, two university employees, and two senior citizens. All students were screened in advance to determine their motivation for enrolling in an intensive German course. Those students who had studied German previously were not allowed to enroll. All students understood before enrollment what kind of experience awaited them. This enrollment was attained after extensive advertising with posters and radio and newspaper announcements. The previous year, colleagues in Spanish had had good success with a similar intensive course.

The course was essentially planned before we participated in the ACTFL Curriculum Planning Workshop during August 1984 at the University of South Carolina (Columbia). We had selected *Neue Horizonte* (Dollenmayer, et al 1984) as our text because of its authentic dialogues and desirable sequencing of grammatical features. We limited our planned work with the textbook to ten chapters (of eighteen) in order to allow sufficient time for communicative activities. This number should be compared to the eight chapters that were scheduled to be covered in the regular first semester beginning German course during Fall 1985 (four credit hours). The course plan was fairly traditional in that we allowed the textbook to determine the material taught. The MWF sequence concentrated on the grammatical structures, while the TTH sessions sought to develop conversational and reading skills.

What we were able to accomplish in this course can be judged by two transcripts from taped oral interviews at the end of the course. The first transcript (see Figure 1) is from an interview with a woman who represented the highest level of achievement attained during the intensive course. The second candidate (see Figure 2) represents the most modest achievement. The interviews were transcribed as faithfully as possible; some attempt was made to approximate mispronunciations through the standard German spelling system.

Figure 1

Transcript of Part of an Oral Interview at the End
of First Semester of Intensive German

Interview § 1:

Interviewer: Wie geht es Ihnen heute?
Student: Es geht mir gut heute, und Ihnen?
I: Mir geht es auch gut, danke. Wie finden Sie dieses Wetter?
S: Es ist sehr schön heute, ein bi*B*chen neblig, aber warm und ... manchmal sonnig.
I: Was tun Sie hier an solchen Tagen?
S: Ich spiele gern Tennis, und ich schwimme gern. Es ist ein bi*B*chen kühl für Schwimmen.
I: Im Freien sowieso.
S: Vielleicht im Hallenbad.
I: Was werden Sie wirklich tun heute nachmittag?
S: Ich mu*B* arbeiten. Ich habe noch eine Prüfung.
I: Wann schreiben Sie diese Prüfung?
S: Freitag morgen.
I: Also, Sie haben noch Zeit.
S: Ich habe so viel zu tun.
I: Sie haben natürlich auch Ihre Familie.
S: Ja, aber meine Familie haben ... hat mir nich gesehen.
I: Ja, wirklich? Was macht Ihre Familie während Sie Prüfungen schreiben?
S: Mein Mann mu*B* das Essen kochen und meine Tochter auch. Aber sie sind nett und sie sind ... sympatisch.
I: Wieviele Kinder haben Sie?
S: Ich habe drei Kinder.

I: Also, alle Töchter, oder?
S: Ich habe zwei Töchter und ein Sohn.
I: Und wie alt ist der Sohn?
S: Er ist ... dreizehn Jahre.
I: Und wie lange sind Sie schon verheiratet?
S: Ich bin ... 19 Jahren verheiratet.
I: Ich gratuliere. Das ist sehr schön. Was macht Ihr Mann beruflich?
S: Er ist Offizier in Armee.
I: Und was macht er, was sind seine Pflichten in der Armee?
S: Jetzt, er hat eine Bataillon, ist das ein Wort?
I: Das kann man sagen. Auf welchem Gegiet ist das? Ist das in der Infanterie?
S: Ja, Infanterie, aber jetzt hat er viele Soldaten und Soldaten, neue Soldaten und nach Training ...
I: Meinen Sie Rekruten?
S: Und nach Training diese Soldaten machen Infanterie und Artillerie.
I: Meinen Sie, er arbeitet mit Rekruten?
S: Ja.

The first interview presents a candidate who is quite participative in the conversation. She is able to create with the language and is speaking primarily on the sentence level. If the additional parts of the interview had been transcribed, some ability to speak in past time would be evident. She is somewhat dependent on the interviewer, but usually can hold up her part of the conversation.

Figure 2

Interview § 2:

Interviewer: Guten Tag!
Student: Guten Tag, mein Herr.
I: Wie geht es Ihnen?
S: Ich gehe gut. Ich bin gut ... und Ihnen?
I: Mir geht's auch gut, danke. Was halten Sie von diesem Wetter heute?
S: Die Wesser ist ein Bi*B*chen kalt, aber es ist ... nett. Ich glaube, da*B* es... da*B* das Wetter will ... better sein.

I: Ja, kann sein, das weiB ich auch nicht. Können Sie mir sagen, können Sie ein biBchen über Ihre Familie erzählen? Haben Sie eine Frau?
S: Ich habe ein Frau ... eine Frau. Ich hat vier Kinder giboren, aber eins ist tot ... ich hat zwei Sonne und zwei Tochter. Alle Kinder ... Kinder sind married auBer der Sohn. Ich habe zwei GroBtochter. Das ist alles.
I: Wohnen Ihre Kinder noch bei Ihnen?
S: Nein, meine Kinder, zwei Kinder wohne in NM und ein Tochter, die junge, sie leben in IL.
I: Und was machen Sie beruflich?
S: Ich bin ein ... a ... Chemiker. Ich arbeite als Geochemist. Ich ... ich ... kenne nicht, was ein Geochemist ist, aber ich lerne.
I; Sind Sie auch Student?
S: Ja, ich bin eine Student für Deutsch, Mathematik und Computer Science.
I: Das ist aber viel. Wie Kurse belegen Sie?
S: Drei ... drei Kurse. Ich belege drei Kurse. But, ich ... ich bin ein special Student. Ich zahle nicht.
I: Wie schön!
S: Ich weiB nicht, warum ... ich denke...I've taken... ich habe ... zu viel Kurse gelegt...gebleiben...gelegt.

The speaker in the second interview is still quite reactive and dependent on the interview for the flow of conversation, although there are some emerging signs that he is trying to be creative with the language. Every sentence contains quite severely fractured grammar, but he is able to use what he has memorized to try to say what he wants to. We have purposely not rated these interviews according to the ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Guidelines because it is important not to equate the end of a given course with a particular rating. Students progress in speaking at different rates. As we will discuss below, the guidelines do not provide course goals.

As mentioned above, each student met once a week in a small group with a native speaker to speak the language. Neither instructor ever went to these conversation sessions in order to allow the students the freedom to experiment with the language without fear that the teacher was noting every error they made. We found that the students enjoyed these conversation hours a great deal and that they profited at least by a growing confidence that they could communicate in German.

In class, we made a concentrated effort to orient the materials to the development of conversational skills. While none of the exercises we built into the course will surprise the reader, they are listed here in order of increasing amounts of required student language production: teacher-initiated questions; questions on dialogues and reading; teacher-initiated indirect questions; descriptions of concrete objects (with partners); narrations of sequences of concrete events (with partners); role-plays; and group and class conversations where the students were in charge.

After teaching this first intensive German course, which was followed by an intensive intermediate course during spring 1985, we applied for grant money to develop a new intensive beginning German course that would be based more consistently on the curricular implications of the Oral Proficiency Guidelines than was the first course. As of this writing, the course has not been taught, although the initial development has been completed.

Since the Oral Proficiency Guidelines are empirical statements of the observable ranges of non-native performance in the language, they do not lend themselves as course goal statements. Students learn languages in different ways and at different rates. As one goes up the scale, the amount of material to be controlled increases geometrically to the point where for Advanced, for example, the list of possible contexts/contents can not be effectively enumerated. Since the statements themselves are global, courses in which students expect to be tested on concretely identified course content cannot be based on these descriptions of proficiency. Instead, course goals need to be developed that indicate *which* functions the students will learn to perform, in *which* contexts and with *which* content, and with *what* degree of accuracy. As such, these statements should reflect what actually will be treated during the course. During the 1984 ACTFL Curriculum Planning Workshop at the University of South Carolina, goal statements for four semesters of German instruction were written (see Appendix A). It must be emphasized that these goal statements were largely based on what we felt were realistic achievements for our students at USC and are, therefore, not empirical. They were not meant as exit criteria, but rather as goals to provide the course with a unifying element and to articulate the four levels of instruction. We tried to take into account variables such as prior language background of the students (primarily monolingual English), motivation, and university curriculum constraints (50 minutes class length MWF, 75 minutes TTH; four class meetings per week for the first semester, three for the following three semesters; and scheduling problems) that would affect student performance. The goal statements reflect a conscious attempt to introduce a function in one particular context and then to recycle it in different contexts. Accuracy was addressed in degrees: conceptual understanding, partial control, full control. These theoretical curriculum planning concerns, commonly given the umbrella designation "spiraling" (Medley

1985), allow the student to be introduced to structures at one point for conceptual control that will be taken up again later in the course sequence for partial control, and then again considered subsequently in an even wider range of contexts for full control. The goals for reading, listening comprehension, and writing were formulated with reference to the first edition of the *ACTFL Provisional Guidelines* (1982).

For our particular one-semester intensive course, we took the goal statements for the first two semesters (see Appendix B) together as the goal statements for the intensive course.

From these goals, concrete course objectives or outcome statements were derived that would provide the basic outline for the course and lead to syllabus development. These objectives describe which function the student will be taught (such as asking questions, giving information, describing, narrating) in which contexts (situational setting) and with what contents (topics). Furthermore, they include statements about expected accuracy, that is, how well the expected outcome compares to the way a native speaker would perform the same task in the same context, or, in terms of speaking, how acceptably or how precisely the student should be able to accomplish the task. For the first semester, we determined that the students should have the opportunity to learn how to greet people, to introduce, to provide information, to ask questions, to express needs, and to obtain services, and begin to learn how to narrate and describe. These functions go far beyond the course goals so as to prepare the way for the subsequent semesters. Complete mastery would not be expected, especially in the case of the last two. Course contexts were defined as survival situations, routine, and everyday life. Grammatical items were chosen on the basis of their wide application and importance to the function and context. This consideration meant that the subjunctive *würde* plus infinitive construction would be introduced very early in the sequence while the genitive case would probably wait until the second semester. Two-way prepositions (those requiring the accusative case to express motion and the dative case to express location) were to be introduced first, followed by the prepositions requiring dative and those requiring the accusative because the so-called two-way prepositions are much more important in giving directions, for example, than the others.

After an itemization of functions was made, we attempted to list them in a natural sequence, selecting a party for our initial context. In fact, we first considered structuring the entire semester around the functions normally performed at a party in the Federal Republic, but later discarded this idea because of the relatively complicated language involved in discussing politics, one of the favorite German casual conversation topics, even with relative strangers. Introductions were selected as the first function, to be followed by some first-person narrative that provides essential personal information. This latter function was to be introduced initially during the first two weeks and then recycled in other contexts in weeks three-four, five-six, and seven-eight (see Course Outline, Appendix B). In terms of accuracy, we felt it necessary to begin immediately with the Nominative/Accusative distinction, which would be used at the beginning in first person narration only, then in weeks three-four in the expression of need, in weeks five-six in description, and in weeks 9-10 in narration and description. All through the course, emphasis was placed on vocabulary building, partially in recognition of the relative contribution of vocabulary at the early stages of speaking (see Higgs and Clifford, 1982). We also attempted to build into the syllabus sufficient opportunity to develop both listening comprehension and some reading ability (Byrnes, 1985) and therefore introduced structures for recognition that could be recycled during later semesters for partial or full control.

Listening comprehension materials, both for classroom and lab use, were derived (in edited form) from three sources: 1) authentic radio programs (weather forecasts, surprisingly, turned out to be much too difficult for this level); 2) records and TV programs (news, weather, children's programs, commercials); and 3) taped native speakers, loosely following a script. We insisted on authentic materials, even if they contained vocabulary and structures not yet introduced because we felt that beginners need to learn to listen for the main idea and not to be discouraged by their lack of comprehension of detail. In the recycling process, they can pick up finer points not essential to understanding of the basic message.

For the development of reading skills, we selected the book *Lesekurs Deutsch für Anfänger* (Wirbelauer, 1983) because we consider this the best collection of texts on the market. It provides a variety of authentic materials ranging from poetry to literary prose to texts about geography, economics, culture, and more. These texts were not intended for conversation purposes since the topics require speaking skills that far surpass the abilities of the beginning language learner. But since they are well written, carefully graded and supplemented with appropriate comprehension exercises, they lend themselves well for the development of reading skills, from scanning to reading for total comprehension.

While the introduction to speaking was carefully coordinated in terms of functions, contexts, and topics and while the ingredients necessary for simple communication were kept at a managable minimum, listening and reading practice evolved around different kinds of themes and topics, not necessarily complementing the material mastered actively, but certainly amplifying it. Moreover, the level of difficulty increased rapidly, which seemed permissible since these materials were only used for passive comprehension, not for active reproduction. These materials were also designed to fulfill the need for an introduction to the broad spectrum of things German, be they cultural, geographical, or political.

Initially the course described here was scheduled to be taught during the fall 1985 semester. Despite heavy advertisment and complimentary recommendations from the students of our previous intensive courses, we had a low enrollment, which forced us to cancel the class. This can be partially attributed to the fact that the auditing fee was raised to that of regular course enrollment fees (for $420, so our clientele from the community argued, one can take a trip to Germany and learn the language through total immersion). Furthermore, we have only a limited number of candidates for German language study in this region and among the student body, and we may have exhausted the number of people interested in German with our first intensives—for the time being. We will wait until the pool of Germanophiles has replenished itself hoping that this will happen soon because we are eager to put our plans and materials to work. In the meantime, it is our strong feeling that the process of designing and developing materials for a proficiency-based German class has given us a new perspective on the nature of language learning and a greater awareness of the need for change in the "established" approach to language teaching.

Appendix A

Goals for the First Four Semesters of German Instruction: University of South Carolina

Semester 1

1 Speaking. Students can adapt and personalize memorized material to form questions, statements, and polite requests in everyday situations in a way which is comprehensible to a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners.

2 Listening. Students can comprehend communications pertaining to familiar situations and recombinations of known structures and vocabulary in a well-defined context, including statements, questions, and commands.

3 Reading. Students can comprehend simple connected discourse on familiar topics using recombinations of known and highly contextualized unknown vocabulary in basic sentence structures.

4 Writing. Students can record in writing what they are able to say and can begin to create phrases and sentences communicating everyday practical needs.

Semester 2

1 Speaking. Students can create sentences in response to perceived needs, desires, and interests and can convey limited autobiographical information in a way comprehensible to a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners.

2 Listening. Students can comprehend communication on familiar topics in different time frames with ease and begin to use contextual cues for understanding unfamiliar situations and topics.

3 Reading. Students can comprehend connected discourse on familiar topics with ease and scan highly contextualized, well-written texts on topics of interest for specified information and skim for main ideas.

4 Writing. On topics of interest, students can create sentences and begin to use cohesive devices leading to the development of paragraph structure.

Semester 3

1 Speaking. Students can maintain simple conversations on familiar topics, including diversified biographical information in a way comprehensible to native speakers who usually do not deal with foreigners.

2 Listening. Students can comprehend transactional conversations on a variety of concrete topics in a highly contextualized setting and can extract specified information from short, connected discourse on less familiar topics.

3 Reading. Students can comprehend in greater depth texts with a high degree of predictability on less familiar topics by utilizing context cues.

4 Writing. Students can compose paragraphs on topics of interest with greater ease and precision, using various resources.

Semester 4

1 Speaking. Students can initiate and participate in general conversations on factual topics with some reference to relevant time frames and are beginning to connect sentences.

2 Listening. Students can comprehend essential points of conversation among native speakers on a variety of concrete topics and can determine the main ideas in short connected discourse.

3 Reading. Students can read for information clearly structured, extended discourse on a variety of topics including texts on familiar abstract topics of low semantic and syntactic complexity.

4 Writing. Students can write moderately extended discourse on topics within the context of their own experience, i.e., some narration, description, dialogue, brief summaries.

Appendix B
COURSE OUTLINE: GERMAN FOR PROFICIENCY (Mosher/Resch)

TEXT: Lesekurs Deutsch für Anfänger

Wks.	Functions:	Content:
1-2	greetings 1st pers. narration 1st pers. description statements with *Sie* closed quest. with *Sie* negation	greetings family and friends student life & activities classroom activities classroom furnishings study tools
3-4	expressions of need questions 1st pers. narration 3rd pers. narration	lodging & food numbers, money student & family life hobbies
5-6	question formation 1st & 3rd pers. narration & description expressions of needs obtaining services	transportation directions automobile time entertainment
7-8	narration & description 1st, 3rd pers.	home family and friends life in dorm or apartment

Accuracy:	Passive Skills:	Reading:
pres. tense "ich"	greetings	alphabet
pres. tense "Sie"	weather	cognates
nom./acc.:	signs	dictionary
der/ein	classroom instr.	nouns
mein/Ihr	*imperative*	*adjectives*
haben	imperative	adjectives
gern	self-intro by teacher	pronouns
es gibt		*Einleitung*
1st pers. pl.	greetings	questions
3rd pers. sg.	weather	time phrases
nom./acc. pron. 1st/3rd	signs	*Kapitel 1*
verbs	menus	verbs
separ. prefix verbs	questions	interrog.
modals: *möchte, können*	imperatives	*Kapitel 2*
wollen	classroom instr.	
verbs with stem changes		
ich weiB		
indep. clause w.o.		
acc. pron. 1st & 3rd		
possessive adjectives:		
3rd pers.		
nom./acc./dat.	timetables	*Kapitel 3*
two-way preps.	train dept. & arr.	
question words	info.	
modals: *dürfen, müssen*	texts about transport.	
werden	advertising (cars, DB)	
würde for	imperatives	
polite requests		
uns, unser		
dat. pronouns:		
1st, 3rd sg.		
dat. prepositions	geography U.S. &	*Kapitel 4*
separ. prefixes	Germany	
brauchen		
imperative		
coord. conjunctions		

9-10	narration & description of past events expression of needs and	routine at home time reviewed & expand purchases
11-12	desires question formation obtain services description in past	clothing souvenirs medical food postage bank & money
13-14	description in past structure of longer discourse	entertainment sports student life & activities purchases

aber, und, oder subord. conjunctions *weil, daB* *wissen, kennen, können*		
reflective verbs	curriculum vitae	*Kapitel 5*
pres. perf. tense of weak verbs acc. prepositions past tense of "sein" & "haben"	biographical data on other people	*Kapitel 6*
pres. perf. tense of strong verbs question words reflexives *lassen* *könnte, hätte* past tense of *können* *wollen, müssen, werden*	biographical info in para. form shopping language advertising bank literature & transactions	*Kapitel 7*
verbs with prepos. pres. perf. mixed verbs imperative with *wir* adverbs *du/ihr:* verb forms, pron.	sport broadcasts & reports recreational act.	*Kapitel 8*

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6

The Study of Latin in American Schools:

Success and Crisis[1]

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The University of Georgia, the nation's oldest state university, chartered in 1785, marked its 200th anniversary in 1985. From its beginnings, the University placed a high value upon the role of Classical Studies in the curriculum. The university's catalogue for 1843 listed the following tuition and admissions requirements:

> For admission into the Freshman class, a candidate must have a correct knowledge of Cicero's orations, Virgil, John and the Acts in the Greek New Testament, Graeca Minora or Jacob's Greek Reader, English Grammar and Geography, and be well acquainted with Arithmetic. . . .Every candidate must be at least 14 years old. . . .The rate of Tuition, the Library Fee, and Servant's Hire, are $38 per annum, payable half yearly in advance.

Today the prospect of every college freshman knowing Latin and Greek seems nearly as incredible as an annual tuition of $38. In the nineteenth century, however, such admissions policies were typical of colleges across the country. During the late 1800s, in fact, both the number and the percentage of high school students enrolled in Latin rose dramatically; by the turn of the century more than 50 percent of our public secondary school students were studying the language (about 263,000), and the actual number had increased to more than 899,000 by the mid-1930s.[2]

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[1] This paper has been adapted and substantially updated, by permission of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), from La Fleur, Richard A. "1984: Latin in the United States Twenty Years After the Fall," *Foreign Language Annals*, 18 (1985), 341-47.

Fluctuations of interest and enrollments in Latin since that time, particularly over the past two decades, and some of the consequences of the ebb and flow, merit discussion at this time. Folowing a precipitous post-war decline to about 429,000 in 1948, secondary school enrollments climbed steadily through 1962, when there were 702,000 public high school students (grades 9-12) enrolled in Latin classes in this country (for these and other data cited in this paper, see the accompanying table). Then, of course, came the Decade of the Relevant, the mid-1960s through the mid-1970s. Johnny did "his own thing", and in the process forgot how to read and write; publishers revised college textbooks downward to a ninth-grade reading level; SAT scores dropped alarmingly. Public school Latin enrollments plummeted, falling 79 percent, from 702,000 in 1962 to a low of only 150,000 in 1976. While complete figures are not available for private schools, their experience seems to have been comparable, with an even more abrupt decline in parochial schools as a result of the deemphasis of Latin by the Catholic church. The number of Latin Achievement Test (AT) participants declined from 22,297 (1965) to 1,433 (1975), and Advanced Placement (AP) exam participants fell from 1,208 (1969) to about half that number in 1974. Membership in the National Junior Classical League (NJCL), the North American academic association for high school Latin students, sponsored by the American Classical League, (ACL), fell from about 107,000 in 1964 to less than 29,000 a decade later. College enrollments in ancient Greek (including both classical and koine) actually increased by more than 50 percent during the 1970s (partly, perhaps, as a result of the intense "social consciousness" of students of the period, to whom such characters as Socrates and Antigone were especially attractive), but college Latin dropped by over a third, from nearly 40,000 in 1965 to fewer than 25,000 in 1974, according to Modern Language Association figures provided on the accompanying table. Membership in the ACL-sponsored National Senior Classical League (NSCL), an organization for college Latin students, also declined during this period, as did membership in most national and regional Classics professional associations.

To many it appeared that Latin, so long a cornerstone of the curriculum, especially the college-preparatory curriculum, was destined to become indeed a "dead language." Foreign language study in general was, of course, one of a number of traditional academic areas weakened by educators and administrators of the period who demanded "relevancy" at every turn, challenged the concept of a core curriculum, and favored the cafeteria-line approach to high school and college graduation requirements. Latin, that most ancient of relics, was naturally the first to go.

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[2] The source for all public high school enrollment figures through 1978 cited in this study is Sandra B. Hammond and C. Edward Scebold, *Survey of Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1978* (New York, NY: ACTFL, 1980).

Over the last decade, however, the American public has become increasingly aware of the error in much of the educational reform of the 1960s and increasingly distressed at its consequences. The response of the 1970s was a cry that arose in near unison from parents, businessmen, educators, and even many students themselves for a movement "Back to Basics." Though that cry was at times perhaps too impassioned, though "the basics" were sometimes too narrowly defined, American education has unquestionably benefited from this movement and from the reassessment of curricular emphasis that followed. In 1979 the public's attention was drawn most sharply to the deplorable state of foreign language study in this country and to the crucial need for its revitalization in all of our schools, from the elementary through the university level, by the report of President Carter's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. The imperative for foreign language study, as a means of enhancing general linguistic and communications skills as well as international cultural awareness, has been emphatically reasserted in the recommendations of subsequent national education study groups, including the Reagan/Bell Commission on Excellence in Education and the College Board's Educational Equality Project.[3]

The classical languages, Latin in particular, have figured to one extent or another in virtually all of these discussions. Moreover, during the late 1970s and the early 1980s considerable public interest in Latin was generated for its usefulness in improving English vocabulary and reading comprehension, as demonstrated in several research studies conducted during the period and widely reported in nationally circulated newspapers and magazines as well as in the professional journals.[4]

By 1976 interest in the study of Latin had reached its nadir in this country. In 1978 public high school Latin enrollments increased, for the first time since 1962, to about 152,000. And by 1982—as all indicators had suggested and survey figures released last year by the American Council on The Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACFTL) confirmed—high school Latin enrollments had risen dramatically, nearly 12 percent in fact, to approximately 170,000. This figure, it may be noted, represents an increase between 1978 and 1982 from 1.1 percent of total public secondary school enrollments to 1.3 percent; by contrast, modern foreign language enrollments in grades 9-12 were down about 10 percent, from approximately 3 million to approximately 2.7 million and from 21.9 percent of total public secondary school enrollments to 21.3 percent.[5]

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[3] Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, *Strength through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S. Capability* (Washington, DC: USGPO, 1979); National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk* (Washington, DC: USGPO, 1983); Educational Equality Project, *Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and Be Able to Do* (New York, NY: The College Board, 1983).

[4] LaFleur *op. cit.*, p. 344, n. 5.

There is good reason to suppose that the upward trend in Latin has continued since 1982, and that it could in fact continue for quite some time. Across the country there remains a strong interest in establishing new Latin programs and in revitalizing and expanding existing programs. New and livelier methods and materials for teaching Latin are being developed, including Longman's *Ecce Romani* series, the Cambridge Latin Course, and a variety of computer-assisted instruction packages, to mention only a few. NJCL memberships (which tend to parallel national enrollments), up by more than 25 percent from the 1977 low of 29,000 to about 37,000 in 1982, have in the last three years increased a full 30 percent to 48,350 in 1985. (The six states with over 2,000 members each, by the way, are all southern states: Florida leads the way, with about 6,200 JCL members, with Virginia a close second and Texas, Tennessee, Georgia, and North Carolina following). Participation in the College Board's AT and AP exams (though still lamentably low[6]) continues to increase, and the number of participants in the ACL's National Latin Exam has grown steadily from approximately 9,000 in 1978 when it was first instituted, to over 33,000 in 1982 and, by nearly 65 percent since then, to 53,505 in 1985.

Thus we have succeeded—all of us together—in reviving in our schools what was, after all, never really a dead language. The greatest problem we face in the 1980s, in fact, is that we have succeeded too well. As foreign language admissions requirements are being reinstituted at colleges and universities around the nation, high schools are faced with the necessity—virtuous, but nonetheless difficult—or expanding existing language programs, or establishing new ones, and of finding the staff to direct them. An increasingly critical shortage of qualified foreign language teachers, not unlike the current shortage of science and mathematics teachers, is rapidly developing in many states.

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[5] For the latest ACTFL survey report, see "Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1982," *Foreign Language Annals*, 17 (1984), 611-23. A new report is expected to be published by ACTFL in 1986.

[6] Of the tens of thousands of high school Latin students in the ten southeastern states comprising the College Board's Southern Region (KY, VA, TN, NC, SC, MS, AL, GA, LA, FL), a total of only 701 took the Latin AT during 1984-85: in Virginia where about 15,000 students are enrolled in Latin, 393 took the exam; in Georgia, with an estimated 8,000 Latin students, only 38 sat for the exam. Source: The College Board, Admissions Testing Program, *College-Bound Seniors, 1985* Southern, Virginia, and Georgia Reports.

In the case of Latin, with the number of students interested in the language steadily growing since the late 1970s, we have been faced with this shortage in virtually every area of the country for quite some time.[7] The growth in high school Latin enrollments has not been paralleled in our colleges. There are exceptions, of course: at the University of Georgia, Latin enrollments have tripled in the last few years, from about 250 to nearly 800, and some other institutions have enjoyed similar increases. Nationally, however, after a very modest 2.6 percent rise between 1977 and 1980, college Latin enrollments between 1980 and 1983 declined again by 3.2 percent, according to the latest Modern Language Association survey released in the summer of 1984, to 24,224, the lowest number in this generation (see table).[8] Though we do not have certain figures, all indicators (including a fall 1984 survey of U.S. Classics Departments conducted by ACL Placement Service Director Bob Wilhelm[9]) suggest that the number of Latin majors and minors, in decline during the late 1960s and the 1970s, has not increased significantly, if at all, during the first half of this decade, despite the growth of demand for secondary school Latin teachers. Certainly the reports of the ACL's Placement Service and of the several local and regional Latin teacher placement services, as well as correspondence with foreign language coordinators from across the country, continue to indicate that position openings markedly, and distressingly, outnumber available candidates: in 1983-84, the ACL Placement Service advertised 186 openings in 30 states, but registered only 69 candidates; in 1984-85 there were 85 candidates for 236 positions. In a survey of state foreign language coordinators conducted by the author in fall 1984, in connection with the preparation of a grant proposal to the National Endowment for the Humanities for a National Latin Institute, the twenty respondents unanimously affirmed the shortage of qualified Latin teachers in their states, in many instances terming the situation "severe," "critical," or "increasingly acute."

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[7] See esp. Gilbert Lawall, "Teacher Training and Teacher Placement: Responsibilities of the Colleges and Universities to the Schools," *The Classical World*, 72(1979):409-15; Edward Phinney, "The Critical Shortage of Qualified Latin Teachers," *Prospects*, 4(1981)1-2, rpt. in *The Classical Outlook*, 59(1981):10-11; Robert M. Wilhelm, "The Shortage of Latin Teachers: Fact or Fiction," *Classical Outlook*, 62(1985):105-10.

[8] For reports on the 1980 and 1983 MLA surveys, see Kurt E. Müller, "Foreign Language Enrollments in U.S. Institutions of Higher Education—Fall 1980," *ADFL Bulletin*, 13,ii(1981):31-34, and Richard I. Brod and Monica S. Devens, "Foreign Language Enrollments in U.S. Institutions of Higher Education—Fall 1983," *ADFL Bulletin*, 16,ii(1985):57-63.

[9] Wilhelm *op. cit.*

As a consequence of the lack of qualified teacher applicants, positions have often gone unfilled for a year, two years, or more, leaving an established program, and its students, in limbo; or enthusiastic plans for a new or expanded program have ultimately been abandoned. In other instances, persons unqualified, or at least seriously underqualified, have been hired or reassigned to make shift. The French teacher, or the English teacher, or the biology teacher, who, the ever-resourceful principal discovers, did study Latin—yes, indeed—for two years, in high school, twenty years ago, is appointed to the post, and presto, the school has a Latin program!

It is hard to judge which of these eventualities has the greatest negative effect. For the student, a mediocre program may be worse than none at all. Certainly for the teacher, bright but inadequately prepared in the subject area, teaching "out of field" can be painfully frustrating, embarrassing, and demoralizing. Nevertheless, an increasing number of Latin classes are being taught by persons lacking even minimal proficiency in the language and culture of ancient Rome, especially teachers who are reassigned by their principals to develop the new Latin courses necessitated by parent and even student demand. In his 1981 report on the critical shortage of qualified Latin teachers, Professor Edward Phinney of the University of Massachusetts described his experiences teaching a course in Latin pedagogy at Tufts University's New England Classical Institute and Workshop:

> . . .nine of the twenty certified teachers enrolled had been recently reassigned by their school systems to teach Latin instead of English or a modern foreign language. Of these nine, none of whom was certified to teach Latin, five had not studied Latin in over a decade, two had studied it only a year or two, and two had not studied Latin *at all* (though they were scheduled to begin teaching Latin that September).[10]

That the situation Professor Phinney describes is not unique to New England, and that is has not improved but worsened since he wrote his report in 1981, is confirmed by the experiences and testimony of teachers and school and college personnel from around the country. It may be noted that the NEH-funded Westminster Latin Institute, an intensive program sponsored by Westminister College (New Wilmington, Pennsylvania) during the summers of 1984 and 1985 and designed to prepare underqualified Latin teachers for certification, attracted more than three hundred inquiries and eighty completed applications for the twenty positions available.[11]

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[10] Phinney *op. cit.*, p. 1.

Now the National Endowment for the Humanities has provided $250,000 for another National Institute, this one jointly sponsored by the American Classical League and the University of Georgia and designed in particular for this ever-growing group of "hybrid" Latin teachers—teachers who are bright, able, and motivated, but who lack the background in the language and culture of the Romans necessary for the development of a full Latin program. The Institute consists of two intensive five-week sessions, to be held on the University of Georgia campus during the summers of 1986 (July 7-August 8) and 1987 (June 26-July 31), with a variety of continuation and follow-up activities scheduled for the 1986-87 and 1987-88 academic years while the participants are teaching in their home schools. Participants in the Institute will receive intensive instruction in the language, from the beginning into the advanced level, and in aspects of the civilization, history, and literature of the Romans centering on the theme, "From Republic to Empire." Eligible to apply are current teachers of Latin or prospective teachers with a firm, preferably contractual, commitment to teach Latin beginning in 1986 or 1987, who have some background in the language but lack certification in the subject.

Participants satisfactorily completing the program should have attained at least the minimum language proficiency necessary for teaching Latin 1-4 at the secondary level as well as a sophisticated understanding of the complex of ideas and issues involved in the collapse of the Roman Republic and the emergence of the Principate during the first century B.C., one of the most crucial periods in the history of Roman—and Western—civilization. In addition, through a series of lectures, workshops, and exhibits, as well as the actual use of texts suitable for application in the high school classroom, participants will become broadly familiar with methods and materials for teaching Latin in the schools. A very distinguished group of seventeen visiting faculty will play an important role in the Institute.[12]

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[11] A. Dwight Castro and J. Hilton Turner, "Responding to the Shortage of High School Latin Teachers" (paper presented at the ACL session held during the American Philological Association Annual Meeting, Toronto, Canada, December 1984).

[12] The visiting faculty include Richard Beaton, Gerald R. Culley, John A. Dutra, Jane Hall, Judith P. Hallett, George W. Houston, Jared S. Klein, Bobby W. LaBouve, Gilbert W. Lawall, Agnes K. Michels, Mark P. O. Morford, M. Gwyn Morgan, Michael C. J. Putnam, Kenneth J. Reckford, Robert J. Rowland, Jr., Susan Schearer, and Judith Lynn Sebesta. The author of this article serves as Project Director; James C. Anderson, Jr., is Assistant Project Director; and Lynne Bell McClendon is the Project's Master Teacher.

Participants will earn thirty-five quarter-hours of non-resident credit from the University of Georgia, including thirty hours in Latin language and literature and five hours in Roman Civilization. Although certification requirements vary widely from state to state and many involve further work in the teaching field as well as in language education and other professional education courses, it is expected that certification boards in most states will offer significant credit toward certification for the work completed in the Institute (applicants have been advised to consult with their local certification officials). All tuition is waived; textbooks, room, board, and a generous transportation allowance are provided, as is a $1,000 stipend for each of the two summer sessions.

Response to the Institute announcement, released in August, 1985, has already been considerable: as of late November 1985, hundreds of inquiries have been received and nearly 250 application packets have already been distributed. Only twenty-five participants can be selected for this Institute, however, and this will surely not be enough to alleviate the shortage [described herein] a shortage which—in direct proportion to the success of our efforts at promoting interest in the language over the past decade—is becoming ever more critical.

While the situation we are facing today has the potential to create enormous difficulties, it has at the same time prodouced enormously rich opportunities. The job market for prospective high school Latin teachers has been a "seller's market" for the past several years. And, as the nation's attention comes to focus ever more sharply on the crisis in American education, especially in secondary education, professional opportunities for Latin teachers should continue to improve. Society is becoming more and more appreciative of the need for academic excellence, and more and more willing to offer master teachers the respect, the improved working conditions, and the financial rewards they merit. We can now, in good conscience, earnestly exhort our students to consider Latin teaching as a profession.

The jobs are there, the conditions of the profession are improving; the students—Latin students—are motivated and disciplined above the average. It is among our foremost responsibilities today to recruit our high school and college students to the study of the classical languages, to encourage the best of them to major or minor (with a second major, preferably, in another area), and to urge them to consider the many rewards of the teaching profession.

College and university classicists in particular need to be more aware of the serious problems in secondary Latin teaching today, and to be more concerned about those problems. We need to regard teacher preparation as a part of our professional responsibility just as important as publishing and teaching doctoral seminars. We need to become familiar with our state's certification requirements and assist students with meeting those requirements and with the placement process. We need to offer courses whose content and scheduling are appropriate to the needs of secondary school teachers, including evening and weekend workshops and summer institutes designed with the current or prospective Latin teacher in mind. We need to be vigorous in pursuing support from state and national agencies such as the state Humanities Councils, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the Fund for the Improvement of Post-secondary Education, as well as from private foundations interested in the improvement of secondary education.

The Imperative for these and other such efforts, on behalf of high school and college classicists alike, has not been greater, nor more urgent, nor more demonstrable, in this generation.

APPENDIX A

LATIN ENROLLMENTS AND CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIPS

1960-1985

	ENROLLMENTS			MEMBERSHIPS											PARTICIPANTS			
	H.S. Latin[1]	College Latin[2]	College Greek[2] (Ancient)	NJCL	NSCL	ACL	APA	CAMWS Area[3]	CAMWS Total[4]	CAAS[5]	CAPN	CANE	AIA	CAC	National Latin Exam	Latin AI	Latin AP	National Greek Exam
1960	654,670	25,700[6]	12,700[6]					2192	4363			892	2746			10,048	208	
1961	695,297							2296	4577			930	3014			13,474	352	
1962	702,135						1568	2378	4696			933	3404			16,980	439	
1963	680,234						1685	2541	5027			929	3693			17,708	677	
1964	590,047			107,086		6252	1784	2591	5143			921	3868			20,244	862	
1965	591,445	39,600[7]	19,500[7]	101,810	213	6120	1855	2649	5184			934	4202			22,297	885	
1966					448	6064	2053	2736	5239			954	4520			20,670	984	
1967				98,201	694	5855	2175	2698	5112			973	5173			19,561	882	
1968	371,977	34,981	17,516	88,727		5812	2355	2768	5744			906	5996	560		18,462	971	
1969					766	5209	2468	2682	5205			904	6446	518		15,920	1208	
1970	265,293	27,591	16,697			4465	2586	2606	4816			841	6753	582		12,777	1046	
1971					674	4118	2770	2600	4618			780	6867	580		7,460	975	
1972				39,772		3872	2765	2512	4449			730	6889	619		5,425	853	
1973				36,890		3444	2837	2231	3968		124	752	6695	636		4,231	705	
1974	167,165	25,167	24,391	32,918	610	3562	2861	1991	3524		127	724	6202	667		3,049	611	
1975				28,894		3469	2900	1916	3443		129	714	5752	547		1,433	624	
1976	150,470			30,532	612	2970	2928	1872	3535		125	651	6063	562		1,555	745	
1977		24,403	25,843	28,870	543	2814		1834	3357		132	641	6999	554		1,734	841	
1978	151,782			29,010		2771	2864	1754	3100		122	576	7601		9,000[8]	1,725	880	
1979				31,152		2890	2855	1654	3071		125	616	7923	548	16,497	1,649	1016	
1980		25,035	22,111	32,026	600	2880	2847	1618	2915		141	606	8758	542	20,710	2,060	1122	
1981				33,924		3006	2932	1657	2881		120	645	9680	559	27,602	2,258	1261	310
1982	169,580			37,017	659	2995	3025	1575	2753		109	662	8981	557	33,336	2,587	1311	415
1983		24,224	19,350	40,574	643	2980	3025	1611	2757	643	107	712	8717	559	35,604	2,455	1529	597
1984				44,452	550	3061	3087	1651	2805	630	99	756	8645	548	46,565	2,685	1704	545
1985				48,350		3088		1613	2682						53,505	2,756	1929	639

[1] Source: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. [2] Source: Modern Language Association. [3] Includes only members in the thirty CAMWS states and two Canadian provinces. [4] Includes, in addition to CAMWS area members, subscribers to CJ from outside CAMWS territory. [5] Figures before 1983 currently unavailable from CAAS headquarters. [6] Estimated. [7] Rounded to nearest hundred. [8] Approximate.

Data compiled by Richard A. LaFleur, University of Georgia, October 1985.

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7

Foreign Language and International Studies:

Past, Present, and Future

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It is indeed gratifying to see state departments of education take a renewed interest in the importance of foreign language/international studies education in the curriculum. Some thirty-three states have at this point enacted some type of legislation which either encourages or requires that college-bound students enroll in at least two years of a foreign language sometime during their high school year. We, as educational leaders, are certainly heading in the right direction. Somehow, though, I remain unconvinced that many of those helping to make the changes, let alone the general American public, are truly aware of the real importance of foreign language/international studies inclusion in the curriculum and its probable impact on our society later on down the line. It is for this reason that these thoughts are offered for our consideration.

In order to adequately assess the need for foreign language/international studies in our schools, we first must take a look backward and examine the rationale for its inclusion in our courses of study prior to the student revolutions of the sixties and the consequential demise of focus on the study. In the first half of this century, Americans had a fairly fixed notion of what sort of formal training an educated person should have. Apart from the basics of English, math, science, and social studies, foreign language was generally always included. Those students who wished to pursue any type of medical career were strongly encouraged to engage in the rigors of Latin study, and students who found themselves in liberal arts programs always knew that the study of French would aid in the perception of their being well educated. Thus the use was made for the study of foreign language: it aided in better comprehension of one's own tongue, provided valuable insights into word derivations, promoted the teaching and application of the higher level skills, and was an excellent way to develop mental discipline.

Generally speaking, two years of foreign language study was prescribed, regardless of whether it was undertaken in high school or college, and the thrust of the training was in the skill areas of reading and writing. Very few students were taught the active language skills of listening and speaking; consequently, many of our middle-age and older American citizens view their foreign language experience as more of an academic exercise than anything else.

While this writer totally disagrees with the teaching of only the passive language skills for today's youth, quite honestly, the type of foreign language training that was offered in those early years of this century was not out of line with the foreign language needs of our country. Unquestionably, the world revolved around the United States during the first fifty years of the twentieth century. Victories from two world wars and an Asian conflict, and strong, consistent presidential leadership yielded a vibrant economy, a confident and productive citizenry, and a quality of life-style that was universally envied. The United States was clearly in charge, and there was no need to be overly concerned with having to go through the rigors of learning foreign languages—our foreign brothers so much wanted to be a part of the good life that we espoused that they readily learned English. Apart from learning our language, they wanted to know everything about our daily lives, from our regional idiosyncracies to our collective values. One particular society has probably never been so carefully dissected in such a short period of time by so many people. The result of all this activity happening around us began to create a certain smugness in the American people, and we have been successful in passing that trait on to succeeding generations. We stopped being impressed with the fact that foreigners wanted to learn our language and culture so that they, too, could take part in the good life; we began to expect and demand that other nationalities speak our language and be knowledgeable about what needs to be done to find our pleasure. The "ugly American" syndrome emerged, and, unfortunately, it is still very much with us.

The world of the eighties looks very much different from that picture. The Vietnam conflict and the accompanying disillusionment of the American people gave the other countries of the world some time to sit back, reflect, and realize that they, too, had a right to offer solutions; other alternatives were available; and, maybe they could increase their position of prominence in the world order. So, while we grappled with domestic as well as international challenges, the rest of the world began to take more control of its own destiny. The end result has been a new alignment of world power, not so much in weaponry and military might, but in economics, trade, and other factors that control so much of our daily lives.

Incredibly rapid advances in technology and communications have put the nations of the world into closer and more frequent contact, and we know that the trend will continue at an even faster rate. The consequence of this greater interaction further heightens the need for increased foreign language and international studies knowledge. On many occasions, while singing the praises of wise curriculum planners in European countries where students study several foreign languages beginning at the elementary grades, this writer has been reminded by his (American) audience that the reason the Europeans place such high emphasis on foreign language study is their proximity to countries whose languages are different from their own. This assertion is, of course, true. And it is that same argument that provides the rationale for greater study of foreign languages and international studies by Americans today and in preparation for tomorrow. We must make certain that, along with the need for foreign language knowledge, we see the accompanying need for international studies education. An integral component of communication is the ability to understand a speaker within his cultural context. The study of the culture of the people who speak the language offers valuable insights into where the emphases of that people are placed. It can make the difference in successful diplomatic negotiations and in international business and economic endeavors.

Interestingly enough, while the world about us is changing at such rapid speed, the United States has, in great part, refused to acknowledge those changes. Many of our citizens still fully believe that the other countries of the world revolve around us and look to us to supply all the answers. This sort of mentality is evidenced in our business dealings as well as in our diplomatic endeavors and in our educational circles. Since the mid-1970s, the United States has possessed an international trade deficit that continues to increase. Economists blame much of the deficit on a strong dollar, which makes it less lucrative for American exports to be purchased by foreign countries; but the 1979 Presidential Commission Report on Foreign Languages and International Studies indicates that many American business leaders cite our lack of ability to communicate effectively in foreign languages and our lack of understanding of foreign culture patterns as a big hindrance in our international trading.

Effective international trading does not harbor any deep mysteries. It follows a very logical, easy-to-comprehend path. The Japanese supply us with the most graphic example to illustrate successful trading on an international scale. When the Japanese realized that there was a market in the United States for their products, they knew that two obstacles had to be overcome before successful marketing could occur: an understanding of the American way of life and the ability to communicate effectively face-to-face with interested purchasers of their products. So, they very studiously went about accomplishing those tasks. The Japanese studied the Americans as closely as any anthropologist would possibly have prescribed. They examined our value systems, our ability to purchase, and were able to predict the future marketing successes of products based on the newly gleaned knowledge. Additionally, they realized that effective international selling means speaking the language of the customer; consequently they mastered use of the English language. When the "invasion" of goods really hit, we didn't have Japanese businessmen coming here with busloads of interpreters; they would have none of that. They intended to show their prospective purchasers that they wanted their business badly enough to take the pains to learn the customer's language. And it worked like a charm.

It is amazing that the United States has not adopted similar approaches to aid in relieving its international trade deficit. Each year myriad newspapers and magazines lament the increasing deficit. Congress and the President are repeatedly asked to impose import regulations in order to give American industry an opportunity to catch its breath. Yet we fail to realize one of the very obvious problems in our international trading: we simply are not competitive! We may have a product that will suit the needs of foreign consumers, but another country may end up beating us out of the sale because its salesman was better prepared to deal with the customer both linguistically and culturally.

The curriculum in our schools clearly indicates why we are not competitive. Foreign language study and international studies fall into the elective side of course offerings across the country. That very fact demonstrates that our nation does not view the acquisition of skills in those areas as very important. We say by the elective status that we make the opportunity available to those interested, but it is not a skill that is of the utmost importance in a child's education.

We have had a glance at the past and the present, but what about the future? Clearly, the future is going to belong to those people who are visionary and who make their plans accordingly. Those visionaries see a world that is going to continue to shrink at an ever-increasing rate causing different societies to be thrown into even greater contact. This increased interaction will, of course, require a greater need for the ability to communicate effectively and to be more sensitive to each others needs and problems. Americans have always prided themselves on their ability to produce an educated and responsible citizenry; for us to be able to continue to accomplish that, we must realign our thinking regarding the importance of foreign languages and international studies for our children. In the twenty-first century, those nations who will end up at the top of the heap are going to be those who not only have technological know-how and business acumen but who also are adept at speaking the languages of their international counterparts and at understanding what makes them tick. To feel that anything less than that knowledge and ability will be adequate is to bury our heads in the sand.

Many will argue that not everyone needs to have this sort of knowledge because those people actively involved in international affairs will actually be a very small percentage of the U.S. population, and that is, of course, true. However, every citizen in this country throughout his life will make decisions about how he feels our nation should do this or that on an international scale. Those individual decisions then join together to form the collective position of our nation. To have our future citizens making such important decisions without the benefit of training in international sensitivity is to have them make decisions in a vacuum. They will be decisions that are not soundly processed; they will be decisions that could be destructive not only to our way of life but also to that of the entire world. We should want our citizenry to have the skills that will enable it to look objectively at situations, analize those situations with sensitivity, and make rational decisions regarding matters that will affect so may people.

So, what is needed in the way of reform to better prepare us for the future? Every student in our nation needs to be exposed to foreign language and/or international studies education at some level. While it is desirable to have a citizenry that is fully communicative in a language other than its own native tongue, a bare minimum should be the skills relative to international studies that will equip Americans to make good decisions about world affairs.

Foreign language study in our nation should emphasize first and foremost the ability to understand and speak the second language. This focus should be obvious to the learner from the first day of class and should continue through the sequence, no matter its length. The highlighting of the listening and speaking skills should not imply no work in the reading and writing skill areas; those skills should be developed as well. In fact, a balanced approach to teaching a foreign language is definitely the best route to follow; however, the overwhelming need of our nation is and will continue to be the ability to function actively in the foreign language with our international counterparts. Similarly, the study of foreign language is not complete without close examination of the culture of the people who speak the language being studied. This study should be value-centered; that is, it should be principally concerned with the themes of that culture, how the people think and react.

International studies instruction should be interwoven throughout the social studies curriculum of our nation's schools. Elementary-age students can be exposed to unit studies of different nations, while middle-grade youth can go into greater depth in world studies classes. High schoolers should have the opportunity to discuss global issues and their impact on the various societies.

To have our students follow such a curriculum would enable this nation to produce the most knowledgeable citizenry in its existence. In addition to the basic survival skills being learned in English, math, science, and social studies classes, they would possess skills that would allow them to function as first-class international citizens, putting them in the circle where world decisions will be made.

Surely we do not want to produce a nation that will be handicapped. To disavow the importance of foreign languages and international studies for our students who will live in the twenty-first century, however, is to do just that.

8

Curriculum Framework for Foreign Language Education in the State of Florida

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Introduction

In the State of Florida there is presently a renaissance in the study of foreign languages. Recent legislative actions have provided a positive impact on enrollment, curriculum, and teachers. Foreign languages are elective credits for the high school graduation requirements; however, effective August 1987, applicants to our state universities must have earned two credits of a foreign language to be admitted. This entrance requirement has increased the enrollment of college-bound students in foreign language courses. Another program that has increased enrollment is the Florida Academic Scholars Program. It recognizes and rewards outstanding high school students who complete a rigorous and advanced program of prescribed studies, including two years of a foreign language. Finally, the Foreign Languages in Elementary School Program is starting to increase enrollment in the upper level courses because the students who have taken a foreign language in elementary schools arrive at secondary education at an advanced level.

This increase in enrollment has resulted in a shortage of foreign language teachers. To counteract this shortage of teachers, the Legislature established the Critical Teacher Shortage Program. This program has created a series of advantages for present and future teachers, such as grants for students preparing to become foreign language teachers, loan repayments for beginning teachers, and tuition reimbursement for teachers who want to take courses at the universities. The most important program created under the Critical Teacher Shortage is the Summer Institutes. These institutes provide rigorous content instruction in foreign languages to instructional personnel who have the assigned responsibility for teaching a foreign language. First priority for participation is given to those teaching a foreign language out-of-field. A foreign language teacher may participate in the rigorous content instruction of a language that he/she is not teaching.

Some other measures have been taken for counteracting this critical teacher shortage. An Alternative Certification Program has been created to provide certification to persons who hold a bachelor's degree in a foreign language. Adjunct instructors can be hired as part of the Visiting School Scholars Program. Retired teachers can be hired as substitute teachers and, finally, legislative action has called for the expansion of the Department of Education's career information system and the establishment of a teacher referral and recruitment center.

At the same time enrollment was increasing, the curriculum for foreign languages has become more consistent throughout the state. Chapter 83-350, Sections 95-104, *Laws of Florida*, has authorized the Department of Education to develop, maintain, and revise curriculum framework for the purpose of insuring a degree of instructional consistency within academic disciplines among high schools in Florida. Section 232.2454 (2) and (5), *Florida Statutes*, has required school districts to adopt student performance standards for each academic program in grades 9-12 for which credit toward high school graduation is awarded. These standards are based on the uniform curriculum frameworks adopted by the State Board of Education. The schools boards were also mandated by law to establish policies as to student mastery of performance standards before credit for the program can be awarded.

The Department of Education coordinated statewide developmental teams of local district personnel to write the curriculum frameworks for 9-12 basic education courses and adult courses. Approval by the State Board of Education of these curriculum frameworks was given on January 22, 1985. It is anticipated that the curriculum frameworks for grades 6,7, and 8 will be completed and forwarded to the State Board of Education for approval during the spring of 1986. The Department of Education also coordinated the task that involved district personnel throughout the State for the development of course performance standards for grades 9-12.

The purpose of this paper is to provide information about the curriculum frameworks and the student performance standards. Both will be defined in terms of the educational research on which they are based. The process for the development of curriculum frameworks and student performance standards will also be explained.

Description of Curriculum Frameworks and Student Performance Standards

The Legislature created principles for the development, maintenance, and review of curriculum frameworks. These principles provided definition and parameters for these frameworks. A curriculum framework was defined as a set of broad statewide guidelines that aid educational personnel in producing specific instructional plans for a given subject area or area of study to promote a degree of uniformity in curriculum offering throughout the State of Florida. The law mandated that the curriculum frameworks are to be based on current education research and literature, recognized educational concepts, and statutory and regulatory requirements. The frameworks for foreign language courses were developed based upon language acquisition and language learning theory and the proficiency scale developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) jointly with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Some other principles created by the Legislature addressed the process to be used to develop curriculum frameworks. These are:

> Curriculum frameworks are to be developed with imput from the professional knowledge and judgment of a broad spectrum of the educational community and other citizens.
>
> Curriculum frameworks are to be approved by the State Board of Education.
>
> Curriculum frameworks are to be reviewed, evaluated, and revised periodically to reflect statutory or regulatory changes and to make other adjustments necessary. Such revisions will be conducted by the Department of Education following a formal procedure which will involve a broad spectrum of educators and other citizens. Additions and deletions are to be approved by the State Board of Education in coordination with the annual update of the Course Code Directory.
>
> The Department of Education will exercise ongoing coordination and oversight of the development and implementation of curriculum frameworks.
>
> The ongoing coordination and oversight will be exercised, in part, through the Department of Education's existing program compliance and performance audits, review of district implementation of curriculum

frameworks, and through the annual updating and approval by the State Board of Education of the Course Code Directory.

Each framework contains a header and four sections: Major concepts/content, laboratory activities, special notes, and intended outcomes. Included in the curriculum framework header are descriptive elements including the major subject area of which the course is a part, the seven-digit course number and full course title, the amount of credit generated by the course, and applicable grade levels and recommended certification. Also, the header indicates whether courses meet requirements for graduation or the Florida Academic Scholars Certificate program.

Section I, "Major Concepts/Content," provides a concise summary of the course. Section II describes integral laboratory activities. In foreign languages, no laboratory activity is described because the language laboratory is considered supplemental instead of integral. Special notes about an individual course provide information specific and unique to that course. In foreign languages this section is not used. Intended outcomes are broad statements reflecting essential elements that students should demonstrate after successfully completing the course. In foreign languages, intended outcomes are defined as broad statements of what the students may perform outside the classroom in a real life setting and which cannot be measured using regular forms of assessment.

The frameworks have omitted prerequisites to allow districts maximum flexibility in establishing course sequence. Districts may establish desired prerequisites and may offer courses for high schools and adult education in any desired order. In foreign languages the sequential number that is part of the course title establishes the sequential order necessary to acquire proficiency skills. Topics and areas of study listed in each framework are vital components of the course. Districts are encouraged to expand courses as desired to meet local needs. The curriculum frameworks do not dictate techniques or methodology. Instructional materials may be determined by local school districts. For a sample of a curriculum framework, please see Appendix A.

The Legislature also created principles for the development, maintenance, and review of student performance standards. Each district school board was directed through legislation to develop specific student performance for each course in grades 9-12 and assessment procedures for determining student mastery of these standards. However, to provide school districts with a sample of standards, the Department of Education coordinated the task that involved district personnel throughout the State for the development of course performance standards for grades 9-12.

Student performance standards are defined to be broad statements specifying competencies needed to perform selected tasks. In foreign languages, student performance standards are defined as specific statements of what the students may perform in a classroom and which can be measured using regular forms of assessment. These standards are directly related to the intended outcome in the curriculum frameworks. By legislative mandate these standards are to be developed with input from a broad spectrum of the educational community and other citizens. For a sample of student performance standards, please see Appendix B.

Process for the Development of Curriculum Frameworks and Student Performance Standards

On the basis of the 1983 legislation and the need for an underlying structure to enable school districts to design and develop consistent instructional programs, the Bureau of Curriculum Services in the Division of Public Schools of the Department of Education organized and developed strategies for securing input vital to the development of curriculum frameworks and student performance standards for basic courses in high school and adult education programs. Through an established process, local school districts and other members of the educational community, in a joint venture with the Department of Education, developed curriculum frameworks and student performance standards in nineteen basic areas, including foreign languages.

The development and approval of curriculum frameworks took nearly two years. The task for the development of student performance standards took a year to complete. A chronology of events will provide insight into the final products. In July 1983, Chapter 83-350, Laws of Florida, authorized the Department of Education to develop, maintain, and revise curriculum frameworks for the purpose of insuring a degree of instructional consistency within academic disciplines among high schools in Florida. Responsibility for development of curriculum frameworks was assigned to the Bureau of Curriculum Services in August of that year. Bureau contact persons for each academic area were identified. During September and October 1983, four regional meetings were held to organize subject area committees for developing model curriculum frameworks and student performance standards for all academic areas. Regional committees met at various times and locations during October and November to write drafts of curriculum frameworks.

The four regional committees for foreign languages were formed by district foreign language supervisors and teachers. A generalist and the foreign language program specialist from the Bureau of Curriculum Services were assigned the task of working with all the committees to provide consistency to the final product. The committees established a close relationship among themselves and with foreign language supervisors and teachers throughout the state that were not working directly in any of the committees. The first task was to state subject area goals and objectives. The four committees agreed on the following goals and objectives for the foreign language program:

> The general goals of the foreign language program are to promote the educational benefits to be acquired through the study of foreign languages and to provide instruction toward the acquisition and learning of the target language and its culture.
>
> For objectives, the foreign language program will strive to provide the students with:

1. Skills in listening and speaking in the foreign language, commensurate with the student's level of experience in the language.
2. Skills in reading and writing in the foreign language, commensurate with the student's level of experience in the language.
3. An appreciation and understanding of the historical and cultural values of the people who speak the target language, including comparing and contrasting of the foreign culture with that of the United States.
4. A better understanding and control of the student's own language by comparing selective phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical patterns with those in the foreign language.
5. An awareness of the value of foreign languages as employable communication skills needed in professional and vocational areas.
6. A foundation for continuing the study of foreign languages beyond the high school experience.

The committees considered that the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be grouped into oral communication and written communication in Objectives 1 and 2. Culture deserved an objective by itself. The assistance that a foreign language provides for a better understanding of English was also considered an objective by itself, as well as the basis for careers and professions that foreign languages provide. Finally, foreign languages in high schools were considered a foundation for further study not only at the university level but as a life-long study in any place where foreign languages skills could be acquired.

These goals and objectives, as well as enrollment statistics, were used to establish course offerings. The committees decided to develop curriculum frameworks for French, German, Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, Russian, and Spanish. It was also decided that, with the exception of Latin and Spanish for Spanish-speakers, the curriculum frameworks should be generic for all languages. This would provide for the insertion in the process of any new languages that a district might wish to teach. After having established the goals and objectives and the course offerings, the committees worked on the rest of the sections of the curriculum frameworks. Samples of curriculum guides from foreign language programs in school districts in Florida and throughout the nation were gathered to serve as a basis for the task of the committees.

The Program Assistance Section of the Bureau of Curriculum Services was assigned responsibility for finalizing the format that would be used for typing curriculum frameworks and student performance standards. Drafts of curriculum frameworks were received by the Department of Education, typed in the common format, and sent to school districts for review by December 1983. Review sessions were held at the January 1984 Division of Public Schools Conference in Orlando, and school districts suggested revisions to the curriculum frameworks. From February to April 1984, Bureau of Curriculum Services program area specialists revised curriculum frameworks based upon district input. The curriculum frameworks were retyped in draft form and printed for distribution. In March 1984, regional writing teams began developing student performance standards based on the draft of the curriculum frameworks. On April 17, 1984, curriculum frameworks were mailed to districts for final review. All district input regarding curriculum frameworks was due and received by May 23, 1984. Five simultaneous regional meetings were held on May 31 to receive final input. From June through September, DOE program area specialists prepared final draft curriculum frameworks based upon district and regional meeting input. Frameworks were typed in final draft form. Curriculum frameworks were approved by the Division of Public Schools Rules Committee in October and by the Department of Education Rules Committee in November. The State Board of Education approved the curriculum frameworks in January 1985. After the State Board approval, the official curriculum frameworks were distributed statewide.

As stated above, Section 232.454 (2) and (5), *Florida Statutes*, authorized school districts to adopt, by July 1, 1985, student performance standards for each academic program in grades 9-12 for which credit toward high school graduation is awarded. These standards were to be based on the uniform curriculum frameworks adopted by the State Board of

Education. As we have seen, curriculum frameworks were in the process of development during a period that went from July 1983 to March 1984. In order to assist districts in the development of student performance standards, the same regional writing committees that wrote the curriculum frameworks began developing student performance standards for each curriculum framework in March 1984. The samples developed by the committees were gathered and a student performance standard workshop was held in Tampa on September 17-19, 1984, for the purpose of reviewing regional writing teams efforts and combining these into one document. From December 1984 to January 1985, the final product was typed in draft form and distributed to districts for final review. Five simultaneous regional meetings were held on February 19, 1985, to receive final input regarding student performance standards. During February and March, a summary of suggested revisions was prepared by Bureau of Curriculum Services staff, typed and printed for distribution. In March 1985, student performance standards and suggested revisions were distributed statewide. School districts adopted or adapted this document or used it as a guide for developing district student performance standards for inclusion in pupil progression plans by July 1, 1985, as required by law.

Conclusion

This paper has presented information about curriculum frameworks and student performance standards authorized by law in the State of Florida for the purpose of insuring a degree of instructional consistency within academic disciplines, including foreign languages among high schools in Florida. Both curriculum frameworks and student performance standards were defined in terms of the educational research on which they were based. The process for the development of frameworks and standards was explained using a chronology of events.

Two issues have to be considered regarding perspectives for the future of foreign language education in the State of Florida: (1) the acceptance by school districts and foreign language teachers of the documents developed, and (2) the implementation of a program based on curriculum frameworks and student performance standards. The first issue can be resolved by looking at the process established for the development of the frameworks and standards. The second issue will have to wait until the program is implemented in school year 1985-86.

The process used for the development of curriculum frameworks and student performance standards ensured that every school district and, at least theoretically, every teacher had the opportunity to provide input into the development. The adoption by almost all school districts of the student performance standards developed by the regional committees proves that both the curriculum frameworks and the student performance standards have been accepted statewide. The annual revision of frameworks and standards will allow the changes needed for the implementation of foreign language programs throughout the State of Florida.

The implementation of a foreign language program based on the approved curriculum framework and student performance standards implies a shift away from the traditional curriculum in foreign languages. Both intended outcomes and performance standards state what the student will be able to do with the language and the level of proficiency used by the student to communicate in oral and written forms. Oral communication with a certain level of proficiency implies the use of oral assessment in which the student will have to produce the language, and the teacher will have to assess this production. Not all the foreign language teachers have been trained to conduct this oral production assessment. This is only an example of the changes in curriculum that are requested by the implementation of curriculum frameworks. It is expected that in-service training for foreign language teachers will assist in the implementation of the foreign language programs in the State of Florida.

Appendix A

CIRRICULUM FRAMEWORK
Florida Department of Education
SUBJECT AREA: FOREIGN LANGUAGES

COURSE NUMBER: 0703320 COURSE TITLE: GREEK 1

CREDIT: ____ .5 ____ 1.0

APPLICABLE GRADE LEVEL(S): P/K-5 6-8 9-12 ADULT
EXCEPTIONAL VOCATIONAL

WILL MEET FLORIDA ACADEMIC
SCHOLARS PROGRAM REQUIREMENTS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGES

RECOMMENDED CERTIFICATION: GREEK 2 4

I. MAJOR CONCEPTS/CONTENT: The purpose of this course is to introcuce students to the target language and its culture and to develop communicative skills and cross-cultural understanding.

The content should include, but not be limited to, beginning skills in listening and speaking with special attention to pronunciation. An introduction to reading and writing should also be includedd, as well as the fundamentals of grammar and culture.

II. LABORATORY ACTIVITIES: none

III. SPECIAL NOTE: none

IV. INTENDED OUTCOMES: After successfully completing this course, the student will be able to

1. Possess sufficient basic vocabulary and structure to comprehend others and express him/herself in areas of immediate need, including, but not limited to, greetings, social pleasantries, classroom objects and activities, personal data, family relationships, daily activities and interests, weather and time expressions, transportation and travel, ordering in a restaurant, and shopping.
2. Respond without reference to English within the limits of vocabulary and structures of the course.
3. Recognize the letters of the alphabet as well as the typical word order patterns of sentences.
4. Comprehend reading material that has been presented in class including, but not limited to, items on menus, schedules and time tables, and maps and signs.
5. Write simple sentences in the present tense.
6. Write personal data and simple biographical information.
7. Be aware of basic aspects of the Greek culture including, but not limited to, holidays, customs, common foods, leisure-time activities, and selected artistic forms (music, dance, graphic arts).
8. Compare and contrast aspects of the culture of Greek-speaking people with the culture in the United States, including common non-verbal responses.

Appendix B

Subject Area FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Course Number 0703320 Course Title Greek I

COURSE STUDENT PERFORMANCE STANDARDS

After successfully completing this course, the student will be able to

1. Possess sufficient basic vocabulary and structure to comprehend others and express him/herself in areas of immediate need including, but not limited to, greetings, social pleasantries, classroom objects and activities, personal data, family relationships, daily activities and interests, weather and time expressions, transportation and travel, ordering in a restaurant, and shopping.

   The student will
   1.01 demonstrate knowledge and application of specific vocabulary in areas of everyday life, such as:
   °greetings and social pleasantries
   °classroom objects and activities
   °personal data
   °family relationships
   °daily activities and interests
   °weather expressions and seasons
   °time/date expressions
   °transportation and travel
   °ordering in a restaurant and shopping
   °colors
   °numbers

2. Respond, without reference to English, within the limits of vocabulary and structures of the course.

   The student will
   2.01 respond to oral directions and classroom commands.
   2.02 choose correct responses to oral questions to exhibit comprehension of conversations and narratives.
   2.03 respond to a statement or question requiring no change in structure.
   2.04 respond to a question requiring a structural change.

3. Recognize the letters of the alphabet as well as the typical word order patterns of sentences.

   The student will
   3.01 recognize the letters of the alphabet.
   3.02 recognize and respond to interrogative and declarative statements in the affirmative and negative forms, in present tense.

4. Comprehend reading material that has been presented in class including, but not limited to, items on menus, schedules and time tables, and maps and signs.

   The student will
   4.01 demonstrate reading comprehension of passages containing familiar vocabulary and structures.

5. Write simple sentences in the present tense.

   The student will
   5.01 write declarative and interrogative sentences, in the affirmative and negative forms, in the present tense using correct word order.

6. Write personal data and simple biographic information.

   The student will
   6.01 write personal data including age, dates, nationality, address and other biographical information.

7. Be aware of basic aspects of the Greek culture including, but not limited to, holidays, customs, common foods, leisure-time activities, and selected artistic forms (music, dance, and graphic arts).

   The student will
   7.01 identify various regions of the world where Greek is spoken.
   7.02 identify some major holidays, festivals, customs, and historical events of the Greek-speaking people.
   7.03 identify some typical foods, leisure-time activities, and selected artistic forms of the Greek-speaking world.

8. Compare and contrast aspects of the culture of the Greek-speaking people with the culture in the United States, including common non-verbal responses.

   The student will
   8.01 give examples of the influence of the Greek culture on the development of North America.
   8.02 list influences of the language on English.
   8.03 demonstrate understanding of lifestyles of the people who speak Greek.
   8.04 demonstrate awareness of common non-verbal responses in the Greek culture.

9

Proficiency-Guided Business Units in High School Foreign Language Classes

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The University of South Carolina

During recent years with the development of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (1985), much has been said about professionally oriented types of activities for secondary school classrooms. (Omaggio, 1984, 1985) Most of the attention has focused on the oral proficiency guidelines since that is where the testing procedure has been most visibly developed. The functional trisection consisting of three components, function, content/context, and accuracy, provides the basis for curricular development and instructional stragegies. *Accuracy* has historically been the basis for the curricular and instructional concerns, particularly in the areas of grammar and pronunciation. That component, therefore, will not be dealt with in this article. We will concern ourselves with the appropriate *functions* or uses of language as well as the content, with *business contexts* being the focus of the article.

Most of the students in secondary school modern foreign language classes are at the novice or intermediate levels. The functions at the intermediate level of oral proficiency call for the student to be able to narrate and describe and to be creative with the language. The content (context) requires the student to be able to handle routine travel situations with a moderate degree of accuracy. Since it is the purpose of this paper to make a case for the inclusion of business content in high school foreign language classes, and to suggest some ways in which high school teachers can organize and implement this type of content, the focus will be on developing proficiency in several skill areas using the levels below *superior* of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines as the guiding principle. (Higgs, 1984)

Many foreign language educators might question whether it is appropriate to include business content at any level, be it secondary school or college curricula. However, no one would question that the first few encounters a traveler will have in a foreign environment will be of a business nature. Upon deplaning in a foreign country, the first experiences will be those of having to exchange money or using the cash exchanged at the airport in the United States in order to tip a baggage man or a taxi driver. This only leads one to the hotel where another business encounter takes place. The fact of the matter is, we are already teaching a lot of business vocabulary in our classrooms, but we often fail to identify the various contexts in which this can or will need to be used. Even more serious is our reluctance to simulate situations in which students realize the business or commercial value of their second language experience.

If one is seeking a rationale for the inclusion of business terminology in a foreign language classroom, one only has to reread some of our best sources such as Paul Simon (1980) in *The Tongue-Tied American*, and Ricks, Fu, and Arpan (1979) in *International Business Blunders* to realize that the American population has a need to be able to operate in this arena. A recent collection of works related to foreign language instruction and business entitled *Foreign Languages and Intercultural Trades: A Global Perceptive* (Spencer) provides a strong justification from business and government officials as well as educators encouraging our profession to begin meeting these needs.

In the southern part of the United States we are seeing an increasing need for individuals who will be able to deal with the ever-increasing Spanish-speaking population. The Spanish-speaking population in Florida is not the only one that will be an important need for marketing personnel to consider since other coastal regions are now finding a growing population. It is mandatory that we educate the population toward the value of Spanish in the real trade world of the South, with the Caribbean, and Central and South America.

A third reason for inclusion of business content in secondary school classrooms is the basis such consideration will give for the development of real-life activities such as those encouraged by Bryan (1986) in another article in this volume (p. 143). If we can identify real-life situations, we can provide activities that develop separate skills of listening, speaking, reading, or writing or some combination of them. The real world is our environment: listening to directions over a loudspeaker in an airplane or in an airport, reading instructions for putting together a new machine, or asking for a room with precise specifications in a hotel, or writing a note to a friend.

A fourth reason for the inclusion of business content in a secondary school classroom is a motivational one. Our capitalistic society is based on free economic exchange, and business interactions are an activity that is common to all students. For example, all students have made purchases of one kind or another and have heard the interaction between the clerk and themselves. Students have read business letters if only to order special make-up materials or request baseball cards or perfume from a mail-order company. These kinds of experiences can serve as a background for a positive experience with business terminology and activities.

On a national scale the Joint Council for Economic Education has been able to encourage more instruction in economics in secondary schools. (Clark and Barron, 1981) It is the southern region that demonstrated the greatest increases in the numbers of students receiving instruction in economics in the three years prior to 1981. It would be a simple matter for teachers to tie in chapters from texts such as *Principios de Comercio* (Rodriguez de Roque, 1976) for interdisciplinary activities to take place. Anna Ochoa, past President of the National Council on Social studies, and Lorraine Strasheim, past President of the American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages have advocated strengthening the interdisciplinary bonds between the social studies, of which economics is but one example, and foreign languages. They encourage joint planning; class exchanges; joint classes, fairs, and festivals; and student projects with joint supervision. (Ochoa and Strasheim, 1983) In South Carolina, one semester of economics is required of all seniors, an opportune time to introduce economic terminology and career orientation for a large group of students planning to go on to state universities where two years of a foreign language will be required for admission by 1988.

The fact of the matter is that we are seeing an increasing need to make our language instruction real to secondary school students. Sisney and Morgan (1985), in a one-semester economics course in Louisville, have taught economic theory and practices, provided career knowledge, provided seminars with government officials, and done everything possible to relate economics to the real world. Just one kind of relevant cross-disciplinary activity that could be provided by a foreign language teacher would be to locate a business person who speaks a foreign language and have the students prepare questions to ask in the foreign language directly to the speaker. Since asking questions is an intermediate function, the activity would be appropriate and certainly realistic. The same questions could be asked to a person knowledgeable in content from any area: literature, cultural anthropology, sociology, etc. We already provide students with educational terminology by the very language we use to conduct classroom activities in the foreign language. (Jarvis and Lebrado, 1984) We have been including the terminology necessary to describe the literary works we read in advanced classes. (Steiner, 1972) As for cultural anthropology, the activities suggested in texts such as Ned Seelye's *Teaching Culture: Strategies for Intercultural Communication* require students to acquire vocabulary and concepts not common to our grammar text books. It should not be unusual, therefore, that an area of human endeavor such as business be utilized for its vocabulary building potential in secondary classes. A decade ago, career education was the watchword for secondary education. Have we forgotten so quickly the needs of secondary school students to be involved in activities that give insight into the professional areas where a high percentage of our college students seem to be moving? While the main objective of our secondary school foreign language classes still remains the development of language skills, the movement towards proficiency points out that vocabulary from all the above-mentioned areas needs to be integrated into our materials and activities so that the student can deal with an ever-broadening arena of contexts. If it takes more time than we have in secondary classes to move students up the scale in oral proficiency from intermediate-low to advanced, we will need to allow enough reinforcement of the functions within the intermediate range to be able to maintain that ability. A variety of contexts of the type that can be provided by business-oriented activities will provide the basis for upward mobility on the proficiency scale. High school programs that leave everything for the colleges to do will not build the motivation necessary for students to want to continue with the language. If there appears to be no internal motivation to learn the language, students will be satisfied to turn around and repeat the same course on language analysis offered by colleges at the beginning and intermediate level. On the other hand, the student who has a broad base of experience with language contexts including literary, cultural, and economic, will enter into the college environment much more ready to deal with the overall curriculum offered. Foreign language in this aspect can be a highly humanistic experience since it can touch upon all major disciplines.

The approach for the introduction of business/economic terminology into secondary school classroom is organized by the unit then, not by specialized courses. It is appropriate to see such courses developiing at the college/university levels, but such an idea would be totally inappropriate for secondary school programs. How are secondary school teachers to learn the vocabulary in order to prepare the units? In the first place, it is certainly possible that some younger teachers have been able to capitalize on the availability of the courses mentioned above. It is also possible that experienced teachers may have taken advantage of programs abroad[1] or may have acquired knowledge through reading[2] or may have taught a special course in the evening for business men traveling abroad. The collaborative organizations[3] piloted through the efforts of Claire Gaudiani have brought together teachers from the high schools and colleges and universities. These are the places where ideas of this nature can germinate and result in a local in-service program in the language for a day or two, which would have a college professor or a business person knowledgeable in French, German or Spanish who could provide instruction and the opportunity for questions and answers in the language to help teachers grow in their knowledge and skills. Similarly, summer courses (Fryer, 1984) organized for the benefit of secondary school teachers or evening courses could provide the same kind of help but in a more extensive nature.

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[1] For more information on abroad programs write Louise Harber, Program Coordinator, Estudio International Sampere, Box 5409, GCS, NY, NY 10163.

Teachers could be encouraged to experience some of the same vocabulary development exercises that are suggested to economics teachers (Brown, 1979) such as scrambled word exercises for novices. Advanced students could stretch themselves into the superior level with hypothetical situations based on actual market prices. Students can use the business section of a foreign newspaper to predict and practice.

Other techniques used in teaching economics can be employed in the foreign language classroom with special units. One such approach is the case study as described by Cabib (1983). If a social studies class is directed to figure out how the stock market works, they are given $50,000 in play money and allowed to invest it. The case study conclusion is open-minded. The students become aware of the value judgments involved in setting economic policies and reach their own decisions. A series of books is available, which provides case studies in several foreign languages. (Balfour, 1982) These are excellent for students who can read at the intermediate level. Creative teachers or students can make up their own case studies. In the final analysis the most important facet leading to success in the language acquisition process of either teachers or students is the willingness to get involved. Perhaps the three most important factors necessary for beginning the implementation of business content units in secondary schools are equivalent to three factors that Robert Kohls views as the most important skills necessary in *Survival Kit for Overseas Living* (1979). They are 1) a sense of humor, or an ability not to be too embarrassed or discouraged; 2) a low goal/task orientation, or not setting our goals too high to be attainable; and 3) an ability to tolerate failure. Certainly foreign language teachers are not business specialists, nor should they be. But if they are willing to laugh at themselves in the learning process, to set realistic goals for business language usage for themselves and their students, and if they are willing to accept their own errors and those of their students along the way toward the acquisition of the business language knowledge and skills, they can provide a realistic environment for their language students. These same students will someday find themselves in an international marketplace where the learning process may have been as important as the actual language skills acquired.

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[2] For more information on business texts write South-Western Publishing Co., 5101 Madison Rd., Cincinnati, Ohio 45227.

[3] For information about foreign language collaboratives originally established by Claire Gaudiani, contact Ellen Silber at Marymount College, Tarrytown, NY 10591.

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10

A Commercial Spanish Sequence at the Post-Secondary Level:

Objectives, Curriculum, and Resources

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Although enrollments at most American universities continue to increase, the distribution of students indicates a shift from the College of Arts and Humanities to the College of Business and the College of Computer Science. Since there is an indication that this trend will continue, foreign language educators at the University of Southwestern Louisiana (USL) have initiated a curriculum that will be compatible with the career needs and interests of a growing number of present-day students.

In order to implement a commercial language program, a number of factors had to be considered. First, foreign language classes at USL, traditionally, have been made up of students fulfilling a foreign language requirement. The business students, on the other hand, usually did not have a language requirement but could enroll in language courses on an elective basis. Also, their motivations and objectives were different from those of the humanities majors, and they tended to be more concerned that course content be clearly relevant to their future careers. Second, language courses had to fit into an already existing degree plan. For instance, the USL business program dictated a 300-level number for language electives, and finally, in order to ensure support from business advisors, input from the College of Business concerning course design was crucial.

To gain exposure and to ensure sufficient enrollment for the first commercial language course, the foreign language faculty sent brochures to business faculty and also attached them to bulletin boards throughout the campus. Ultimately, the first course attracted the largest enrollment for any 300-level Spanish course in the language department at USL.

A mini-grant eventually supplied funds for brochures, miscellaneous supplies, computer searches for source materials, duplicating services, travel money to research areas, and funds for a research assistant. Since the first commercial Spanish course was developed, enrollment has warranted the addition of three other courses.

For economic reasons, USL has established a commercial track within the Spanish degree plan so as to utilize existing courses. For example, majors in the literary track as well as those in the commercial track are able to co-study in lower division language classes, as well as in upper division literature and culture courses.

Commercial sources focus on such topics as: *Banca y bolsa, El comercio internacional, La importación, Marketing-peticiones de información y ofertas, Solicitudes de empleo, Conceptos jurídicos y derecho mercantil, Los organismos internacionales y sus objetivos, Correspondencia comercial, La empresa moderna y su funcionamiento,* and *Inflación y crisis en la economía mundial.*

Students are encouraged to prepare for two levels of the Madrid Chamber of Commerce examinations, the *Certificado de espanol* and the *Diploma.* The *Certificado* consists of a twenty-five minute oral section, which includes a dialogue with the testing official about a national current topic, questions concerning the administrative organization of a commercial firm, and in addition, commercial terminology. The written portion, which takes one hour and thirty minutes, includes dictation, a commercial letter, and ten questions about commercial administrative organizations.

The thirty-five-minute oral examination for the *Diploma* consists of a dialogue and a reading. The written portion, which requires one hour and forty-five minutes, includes a summary of selected material taken from the *Cámara de comercio* publications, the writing of a commercial document, and ten questions about commercial legislation and Spanish economy. More information is available from the Madrid Chamber of Commerce, *Cámara Oficial de Comercio e Industria de Madrid* (Huertas, 11, 28012 Madrid/España).

The performance objectives for one of the commercial courses at USL (Spanish 361) states that upon completion of the course the students will have acquired bilingual skills which, with the aid of bilingual dictionaries, will allow them to translate business correspondence and documents. (English and Spanish); write business correspondence and/or reports in Spanish or English concerning economic, political, and legal systems of Latin America and/or Spain which relate to business; and participate in discussions (reports and/or interviews) on matter of interest in their areas of business expertise in Spanish or English.

A typical lesson for Spanish 361 may include one or two oral reports, a reading on current affairs with a discussion period, an introduction to new vocabulary, a quiz over material from previous lessons, and/or a letter composition in Spanish with information provided in English (or a letter in English with information provided in Spanish). While there are no grammar lessons per se, grammatical problems are discussed as they arise, especially during letter writing and reports.

The commercial Spanish instructor supplements textbook material with current business news from *Diario Las Américas*, the Spanish newspaper from Miami and other periodicals. Also, local business people are invited to discuss the needs of industry and the advantages of foreign language proficiency for business majors.

Instructors who staff the commercial program do not teach commerce, but rather they teach language and emphasize aspects appropriate for commercial professions. Students in the new sequence are encouraged to acquire language and cultural skills that will allow them the option of an internship abroad and/or employment in a commercial area.

Since a basic objective of the undergraduate Spanish curriculum is to teach language by means of the four skills, a major concern is that commercial language courses include essential linguistic aspects. In addition to learning business vocabulary and terminology, language students need practice in the traditional areas of language development such as pronunciation, comprehension, reading, writing, speaking, and translating, as well as opportunities for vocabulary acquisition, grammatical development, and culture awareness. For example, non-native speakers profit from opportunities to improve pronunciation. Along with comprehension practice, pronunciation may be enriched by guest speakers, tapes of interviews, dialogues, radio announcements, and advertisements, all in the target language.

In addition, oral reports, panel discussions, debates, and use of the target language during class time give students more practice in oral language. Meanwhile, readings from classroom textbooks are enhanced with current newspapers and magazines published in the target language.[1]

Although translating exercises can become mundane, the regular textbook is supplemented by copies of current correspondence, documents, and business papers from the instructor's file. Samples have been collected during trips abroad and from associates who live or work abroad.

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[1] Examples of newspapers are *Diario Las Americas*, Circulation Department, Box 593177, Miami, Florida, 331-59-2177; *El Pais*, Miquel Yuste 40, Madrid 17, Espana. Examples of magazines are: *Mercado*, Peru 263, 2 Piso, Buenos Aires, Argentina; *Semana*, Torre Cemica Ave., Francisco de Miranda, Apartado del Este 60983, Caracas 106, Venezuela.

Sensitivity to the culture or business etiquette, as it is referred to in the commercial world, is a most important aspect of the curriculum. Obviously, speaking the same language is not enough—one must also understand cultural concepts and recognize that rhetorical patterns differ accordingly. For instance, a member of an Indian culture may persuade his listeners by recounting the deeds of his ancestors and himself, thereby extablishing his personal worth. His culture group puts a great deal of emphasis on the past, but to the American, one must "prove" his or her individual merits, rather than inheriting them. A member of an Arabic group develops an idea through repetition, building up for the climax, but the American expects to do so through logical reasoning. While a member of a Slavic culture arrives at the main idea by first showing what it is not, most Americans are concerned with getting right to the point, using economy of expression for effective communication. Whereas the American may prefer a "fair deal," no more no less, equality may not impress the Latin American who accepts the *mordida* (bribe) as a common practice. And so on . . .

Commercial Spanish educators at USL have found *Big Business Blunders* (David A. Ricks, 1983, Dow Jones-Irwin, Homewood, Illinois 60430) a useful publication concerning business etiquette. Other valuable resources for commercial Spanish include:

1. *Guide to Latin American Business Information Sources (*Organization of American States, General Secretarist, Department of Publication, Columbus Memorial Library, Washington D.C.).
2. *Libros de Textos y Materiales Complementarios* (South-Western Publishing Company).
3. *The Journal of Language for International Business* (American Graduate School of International Management, Thunderbird Campus, Glendale, AZ 85306).
4. The American Translators' Association (109 Croton Avenue, Ossining, NY 10562).
5. The European Exchange Consortium (Ray Schaub, Foreign Language Department, Eastern Michigan University. Ypsilanti, MI 48197).
6. The annual Conference on Languages for Business and Professions (Geoffrey Vought, Department of Foreign Languages, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, MI 48197).
7. Commercial Spanish Textbooks (Editex, Rafael Calvo 18, Madrid 10, Espana).
8. Publications from Spain (Libreria Dossat; Plaza de Santa Ana 8, Apartado 47, Madrid/Espana).

9. Commercial Spanish study abroad (Estudio Internacional Sampere, Castello, 50 dcha; Madrid 1, Espana).
10. *Trabajo y vida* (Newbury House Publishers).

It is too early to objectively judge the real impact of the commercial language program at USL. However, up to this point, students and administrators have reacted positively, and Commercial Spanish students account for approximately 6.5 percent of the over-all Spanish enrollment. While some graduates of the program have enhanced their commercial language skills through study abroad, others have secured employment with firms in Chile, Colombia, Mexico, and Puerto Rico, or with international firms in the United States. On this basis, it is the opinion of the foreign language faculty at USL that the department is beginning to better address the needs of the student body as a whole than it has done in the past.

11

The Ultimate Curriculum Guide Outline:

From Philosophy to Test Items

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The ultimate Curriculum Guide Outline (CGO) is much more than a content outline or a list of teaching activities. It is not a syllabus or the table of contents of the text. Richland School District One in Columbia, South Carolina, in a structured, all-out effort to coordinate the curriculum across disciplines, developed the CGO model. A CGO is an *outline* that *guides* the total *curriculum* content of a course and states the level of mastery that is acceptable for course credit. It has five components:

Philosophy
Goals
Objectives
Performance Indicators
Test Items

Each component is a sub-unit of the preceeding one; each step breaks down the component into a more measurable element to be taught and tested. From a broad statement of belief (the philosophy) to a specific test item that measures mastery of one small element, the ultimate CGO works to provide the total package for curriculum development.

Before embarking on a crusade to write CGO's, consider these points:

(1) Encourage direct input from teachers who will be using the guide, and form from them a committee that you can count on;

(2) Allow yourself a minimum of two years; really three is better;

(3) Provide for at least one pilot;

(4) Make provisions for a mastery management system and follow through.

Each component will be discussed and examples will be given to illustrate the total package.

Component #1: The Philosophy

The first component, the philosophy, is a genreal statement of belief. It is the core of the total package and should be referenced throughout the curriculum writing process. The philosophy provides the basis on which other elements of the CGO are founded. In the following example note the emphasis on the four basic skills, cultural awareness, and functional ability in the foreign language.

> The foreign language curriculum provides students with an opportunity to acquire an additional tool for communication, to understand other peoples and their differing cultures, to increase their career opportunities, to develop self-expression, and to widen personal interests.
>
> The study of a foreign language is a progressive experience which includes these skills: an increasing ability to understand the language when spoken, to speak it, to write it, and to read it with ease and enjoyment. Also, the study of another language brings about an expanding and deepening knowledge of the people, geography, history, social institutions, literature, and culture of other countries.
>
> Foreign language studies is one part of the school curriculum that prepares students to function in an international society. Knowledge in this area provides students opportunities for interesting areas of work and means by which they can be better equipped to become world citizens.

The philosophy, of course, is not measurable and will never be tested. It merely provides the foundation for the CGO.

Component #2: The Goals

Like the philosophy, the course goals are four or five non-measurable statements of content and belief. Students do not have to achieve goal standards, but goals should be realistic, should reflect the philosophy, and should set the stage for the objectives to follow. In the following example emphasis is again on functional skills and culture.

1. Students will learn to communicate in the foreign language by developing skills in listening comprehension, speaking reading, and writing.
2. Students will develop through sequential study a degree of foreign language proficiency necessary to function better in an international society.
3. Students will develop an appreciation of cultures other than their own.
4. Students will appreciate the contributions of the foreign culture and language to their own culture and language.
5. Students will develop a positive attitude toward language study.

At this point the CGO committee should study established guides from districts and states that have them, the ACTFL/ETS Proficiency Guidelines, and the texts that will be used. However, a word of caution is needed here. It is so easy to let the text dictate the course, but content and objectives *must* be derived from the professional expertise of the teachers, the CGO committee, and established criteria.

Component #3: The Objective

It is first at the objective stage that the real work seems to begin taking shape. Objectives state what the student *should* do (after all, who can say what someone *will* do?) and provide the basis by which student output is measured. Of the two types of cognitive variables used in education (ability and achievement), curriculum writers should concentrate on achievement objectives.

To avoid writing all objectives at the lowest cognitive level, consider the three types of objectives: informational, conceptual, and procedural. Informational objectives are most familiar to educators. They are facts or generalizations that society believes to be important or interesting in their own right. These include "who, what, when, where" questions, paraphrasing, and making correct inferences based on information presented. (Anderson, 1981)

Conceptual objectives include categories of objects, events, experiences, or ideas that give meaning to symbols, words, and pictures. Students must identify new examples of the concept, eliminate incorrect examples, or identify distinguishing features between or among concepts. The third type, procedural objectives, is a sequence of mental or physical activities that can be used to solve problems or gather information. To master this type of objective, students must apply a procedure directly.

A sequence of language courses is comprised of 10 to 12 objectives that can be carried over from one level to the next. Here are five objectives for French I-IV. After discussion of Component #4, performance indicators, it will be clear how these five can be used in all four levels of a language.

Objective #2: Students should orally express ideas in French on familiar topics.
Objective #3: Students should exhibit writing skills in French.
Objective #8: Students should comprehend what they read.
Objective #9: Students should comprehend active French vocabulary.
Objective #10: Students should develop an awareness of French culture.

Component #4 Performance Indicators

Performance indicators *indicate* exactly what skills students are expected to *perform* in order to master an objective. They are specific and measurable, and therefore they change in complexity from level to level in language study. In the following examples, the objectives stay the same, but the performance indicators change from French I to French III.

Objective #3: Students should exhibit writing skills in French.
Performance Indicator A: French I
When dictated, write *et, est,* and *a.*
Performance Indicator A: French III
Write a complete original sentence about leisure activities within stated verb objectives.

Objective #9: Students should comprehend active French vocabulary.
Performance Indicator A: French I
Recognize basic colors and answer "De quelle couleur est . . ."
Performance Indicator A: French III
Use these idioms: faire + les courses, la cuisine, la lessive, un voyage.

Since performance indicators detail skills to be performed, each objective may list ten to twenty as subcomponents. Obviously it would be impossible to master each of these, so teachers must decide which performance indicators are minimum and which are not. When a performance is designated as minimum, it is essential that the student master it in order to continue into the next level of that language. If it is not considered essential, it can be carried over into the next level. For example, you may list ten performance indicators under one objective and then decide on three of these as absolutely essential for level I, three additional ones for level II, two more in level III, and the last two in level IV. By the fourth year the students will have had to master all ten performance indicators of that particular objective to receive credit.

A complete course goes far beyond the minimums. This is the reason other performance indicators are included. Some may never be designated as minimum; they may be viable parts of the course but in actuality a student could speak, read, and write in the language adequately without mastering such a performance. One such example is "Use correct intonation patterns, stress, pitch, liaison, and elision.

One of the biggest questions is what is minimum and what is not. The teacher who preaches the "tour guide" approach will vow that if a student cannot name the rivers of France, he should not receive credit. The truth is that there are probably many Americans who do not know the rivers of the United States yet they seem to be handling English quite well.

Figure 1 illustrates a form to be used by teachers when determining which performance indicators are minimum.

COURSE TITLE ____________________

PERFORMANCE INDICATOR ASSESSMENT

Objectives/Performance Indicators	(1) At What Other Grade Levels is Objective/P.I. Taught?	(2) How Serious Would It Be If Students Did Not Master this Objective/P.I. Taught?	(3) How Important is This Objective/P.I. in Terms of the Entire Course?	(4) How many pages in the textbook(s) are devoted to this Objective/P.I.?	(5) How Many Lessons Are typically spent on the teaching of this Objective/P.I.?
Objective # ____	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. A	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. B	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. C	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. D	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. E	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. F	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. G	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. H	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. I	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		
P.I. J	7 8 9 10 11 12	NOT SS S VS	NOT SI I VI		

Key.--P.I. refers to Performance Indicators. With respect to the seriousness question (Q2), "NOT" means NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT, "SS" means somewhat serious, "S" means serious, and "VS" means very serious. Similar, in question Q3, "NOT" means NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT, "SI" means somewhat important, "I" means important, and "VI" means very important.

FIGURE 1
(Used by permission: Lorin W. Anderson and W.L. Bell)

For each performance indicator teachers mark in what other grades the objective is taught, the seriousness and importance of the objective, and how many pages and lessons in the text are devoted to this particular objective. What teachers may find is that in reality a performance indicator they had initially marked as minimum may be taught in two previous grade levels and is not so important in terms of the entire course as previously thought.

A performance indicator would be minimum if non-mastery caused misunderstanding in the language. In a pronunciation objective a performance indicator indicating correct pronunciation of *é* and *ç* might be minimum whereas nasals might not be. In addition, these performance indicators are measured in terms of time (180 school days). Once all minimums are added up, the total time required to teach them should not exceed the time available.

Component #5: Test Items

Only those performance indicators designated as minimum will be tested since the test determines who passes and who fails. To determine what evidence you will accept that learning has occurred, you will either look or ask. Vocational teachers often evaluate by looking and use observational checklists while observing the behavior. Checklists can be used by foreign language teachers when testing orally to determine if the criteria are met and to ensure the conversation is kept on task to measure specific objectives.

However, for the most part foreign language testers will ask for mastery through multiple choice tests. Multiple choice items have two parts: a stem and response options. The stem should be a complete sentence, short with no extraneous information and contain some information that relates to the nature or category of the correct answer. The four response options should be plausible and homogeneous and contain elements of the same catefory. Keep in mind the three types of objectives when writing test items. Information items are relatively easy to write; they are "who, what, when, where" questions. Conceptual items include questions such as "Which of the following is an example of. . ?" Procedural objectives state "Find the. . ." and "Judge the. . ."

Each minimum performance indicator should have at least four test items. Three will be used for the interim test distributed with the CGO, and one will be kept secure for use on the post-test. During the second year when the CGO's are being piloted, teachers should pilot the interim items as well to determine if students are having difficulty with the wording or the concept.

Figure 2 is an evaluation sheet for checklists and multiple choice items.

TEST ITEM/CHECKLIST CRITIQUE

COURSE: ____________
OBJECTIVE: ____________
PERFORMANCE INDICATOR: ____________

MEASURED BY: (CIRCLE ONE)
CHECKLIST
MULTIPLE CHOICE ITEMS
OTHER

	ITEM QUALITY			CHECKLIST QUALITY		VALIDITY	DIFFICULTY
	STEM CLARITY Y ? N	RESPONSE OPTIONS WITH PROBLEMS (SPECIFY)	STRUCTURE/ GRAMMAR Y ? N	COMPLETENESS/ CLARITY Y ? N	 Y ? N	(1-3)	(1-5)
PI CKLIST	XXX	XXX	XXX				
PI ITEM 1				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 2				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 3				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 4				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 5				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 6				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 7				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 8				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 9				XXX	XXX		
PI ITEM 10				XXX	XXX		

Figure 2

(Used by permission: Lorin W. Anderson and W. L. Bell)

Each of these criteria for multiple choice items must be considered:

(1) *stem clarity*—Upon reading the stem, will the student understand the nature of the response required?

(2) *response options with problems*—Which are implausible or not homogeneous?

(3) *structure/grammar*—Are these acceptable?

(4) *validity*—If a student answers the item correctly, how confident would you be that he has acquired the skill or knowledge specified by the performance indicator?

(5) *difficulty*—How difficult is this item for a minimally competent (D) student?

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There are four criteria for checklist quality:

(1) *Completeness*—Are all the important steps included?

(2) *clarity*—Will an observer know what to look for and how to use the checklist?

(3) *validity and difficulty*—Use the same criteria as for multiple choice items.

Subject matter specialists grade only validity and difficulty while out-of-field educators grade other portions to ensure impartiality.

The ultimate Curriculum Guide Outline is now complete. It contains all five components, has been piloted, and test items have been checked. A management mastery system or monitoring program can be initiated now. Once programmed with objectives, performance indicators, and test items, it will print out for the teacher test items on a particular performance indicator as well as state a percentage that denotes mastery.

Armed with the ultimate Curriculum Guide Outline, you can eliminate the guess work in deciding if a student has really mastered the basics. Gone is the headache about what to teach in a given unit and what to leave out. Gone are the days of a textbook publisher determining your course content. And here are the means by which you can insure that students master the critical skills in your foreign language courses.

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12

Targeting the Target Language:

A Teacher Reflects

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After years of methodological chaos in the teaching of foreign languages, it seems time to reflect on the present state of language instruction in our colleges and secondary schools and to consider the reasons that compel us to offer languages to our students. Note that care has been taken to avoid speaking of reasons to *study* a foreign language, because such phraseology produces our first error, when we try to justify to our students the study of a foreign language. At a time when every course in the curriculum must be *worthwhile, appropriate,* and even *financially promising*, we have thought that we must justify our preferred academic discipline in such misleading terms. Of course foreign languages are worthwhile and appropriate, but we are not truly communicating with our hesitant, often recalcitrant, students who seem to think that *appropriate* and *immediate* are synonyms. They surely are not! We fall unfortunately into the same trap spread by certain students when we try to justify "the study" of foreign languages using artifical reasons, referring to reasons for *studying* foreign languages instead of speaking of reasons for *offering* them.

Several years ago a French teacher in a secondary school asked me to provide her with a few reasons for studying a foreign language which she could share with her students. In turn, I asked her how she ordinarily responded when students posed such a question. "Oh," she began, "I tell them 'Why not? One day you may marry an ambassador.' " Perhaps the naïveté of this person who is no longer a member of our teaching ranks is surprising, but many of us experience an equally strong aversion when we hear some of the various reasons that others believe to be somewhat more realistic. How many times have we suggested to our students that they can become flight attendants (as if that were a universally admired goal) or to our students who are hooked on science that they will need a foreign language to be able to read their professional journals? I am convinced that most students in biology and mathematics, for example, do not do a great amount of reading even in professional journals written in English, much less in those written in French, Spanish, Russian, or German!

And even to our own language majors: "Certainly," we assure them, "you may become an interpreter at the General Assembly of the United Nations in New York." Given the training and background requirements of such a position, do we truly believe that such a goal will be convincing enough to attract and retain foreign language majors in our programs?

Perhaps now it becomes more apparent why we should avoid discussing reasons to *study* a foreign language. We trap ourselves, and we begin to invent shallow reasons. In my mind, the deeper reasons for offering a foreign language are based on a general appreciation of *Culture* and *Education*. It was these cultural and educational lures that attracted us in the first place. We had to discover the world, expose ourselves to new attitudes, form our minds, and seek to understand the other inhabitants of our planet. As the former Ambassador of France, Jacques Kosciusko-Morizet said in an address to the General Assembly of the American Association of Teachers of French in 1972, we study (French) to "unfetter our spirit, to broaden and make our faculties supple, to prepare ourselves to perceive, understand, and use new phenomena to a greater degree." Basically, he echoed Goethe's maxim: "Wer fremde Sprache nicht kennt, weiss nichts von seiner eigenen." [He who knows no foreign language knows nothing of his own.]

It is uniquely by language that we can fix our comprehension of the universe, and since each language is limited, monolinguals find themselves limited when they seek to describe the different realities of the universe. As we know, there are, in Eskimo, about twenty words for "snow." Being only Anglophones, we recognize the necessity of only one. If we spoke Eskimo, we could understand the reality of "snow" in some twenty nuances. In certain African languages, there are only two colors: dark and light. Imagine the joy of these Africans one day learning a language such as ours to discover the dozens of rainbows of all colors that Anglophones appreciate. That's the real reason for offering foreign languages to our students!

I don't think that we need much further justification, but we could continue with the subtleties of the subjunctive, which permits Francophones to use certain nuances and refinements of thought impossible to speakers of English. The simple difference between "qui" and "que" (subject and object case), which occasions beautifully turned sentences in French, is for all intents and purposes lost on Americans who no longer appreciate the difference between "who" and "whom," "whoever" and "whomever."

To return to the distinction we've made between "studying a language" and "offering a language," we should take into account that we are in an era in which students are no longer forced by academic rules and curriculum guidelines to enroll in language classes. We have now in most of our classes what we have always wanted: an assembly of kindred spirits with whom we can share our love of language. And we must profit from this opportunity by developing a true enthusiasm among our students.

We are, as I once heard it expressed, in the "dynamics of dilemma." This dilemma, a direct result of populist thoughts of immediate gain, can be resolved by dynamism in the classroom and by honesty with our students.

The first aspect of this dynamism can be manifested in our choice of the foreign language as the language of instruction. English should be the last recourse and never the initial cop-out. In order to prove to our students that the language we are teaching is a living language, we must demonstrate that it is a language *per se*, without any reference to "how do you say that in English [read: "in *real* language?"]. English is not the mother tongue of the world; other languages are not secret codes invented to hide universal truths from our students as they are wont to believe. If every speaker of English on the face of the earth should suddenly fall dead, French and Spanish and German and nearly 3,000 other languages would continue to exist, would continue to be spoken, and, *mirabile dictu*, to be understood!

John L. Walker, in his article, "Opinions of University Students About Language Teaching," *Foreign Language Annals*, October 1973, (pp. 102-105), reported an excellent survey of student opinions which are still valid today. Students told him that their principal goal is to develop their ability to speak, perceiving that the subsequent ability to read and understand the language is directly related to their oral skills. This attitude is, at least in part, justifiable, since without practice in speaking, students will forget the grammar rules that they so much hate to learn and that we so much love to inflict on them. Basically, they prefer conversation *in* the language to conversations *about* the language, and so should we!

We must also forgive our students their peccadilloes in pronunciation and spelling, for corrections of minor errors destroy their self-confidence and force them to make such efforts on superfluous details that they lose their momentum, their zeal, and their desire to try to express themselves in the foreign language. What our students prefer, says Mr. Walker, is to succeed in communicating their ideas in spite of the small errors that characterize every living language, especially our own. The success of a single conversation, imperfect as it may be, will engender the desire for other successes.

If our students are interested in learning languages, we do them a disservice if we subject them to old methods that were in vogue when we were students. Today, we are obliged to make sure that our students learn well and that they find pleasure in the academic process. At this point, a word of warning about the possibility of repeating our pedagogical errors of the past would be in order. Everyone had gimmicks to teach foreign languages. Some were stuck on the audio-visual method; others on dialogues learned by heart and repeated by robots. Still others, for reasons that still escape me, perpetuated the method of translation into English, even at the beginning level. And then, there were those who crusaded for the study of contemporary culture as the only viable method of teaching a foreign language.

It is true that culture has a great deal to do with language, for the latter is only a manifestation of the former. We can certainly incorporate culture into our classes to make the study of the language more real. History, dress, music, customs, theatre, traditions, art, literature, and even the development of the language may interest our students and show them that the language itself is only the tip of the iceberg that is the civilization connected with the target language. However, we must never forget that the language, this primordial phenomenon of communication, is the target.

To sum up: As language teachers, we need to recall that the real reasons for offering a foreign language today are the same ones that initially called us to our chosen profession, that siren song from the land of Babel. We should therefore attempt to transfer our enthusiasm to our students and avoid the transparent and fradulent "justifications" of the Now generation. Instead of insisting on the mastery of the agreement of the past participle in reflexive verbs in French, for example, we should try to develop among our students a positive attitude toward our discipline. We should explain that the perceptions of another culture and another language, and consequently, of another reality (such as the reality of two past tenses [aspects] in French and Spanish) are more important than a series of linguistic exercises. (La plume de ma tante est sur le bureau de mon oncle.)

When our students ask us the object of their study of a foreign language, let us respond together that from language comes the ability to understand and communicate with others.

13

Increasing Student Participation in the Foreign Language Class

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What foreign language program does not have for its primary and ultimate objective teaching students to use the target language for communication? We plan for classes filled with the sounds of the target language coming from every student and a forest of eager hands in the air signialing answers to our questions. However, we may content ourselves with less than the envisioned articulate, eager performances. The classroom may be analogous to the football field. Every football play sketched on the blackboard goes for a touchdown; the same play run on the field may not. What then are the differences between those classrooms that promote communicative "touchdowns" and those that do not?

The solution to producing a high level of student involvement seems to lie in four common classroom elements that are under the teacher's control: 1) teacher expectations and modeling those expectations; 2) classroom atmosphere; 3) instructional formats; and 4) teaching activities. In this paper, the teacher behaviors in each of these four categories, which tend to increase the quantity and quality of student participation, will be examined more closely.

Teacher Expectations and Modeling Those Expectations

Students are more consistently involved in using the target language in classes where the teacher expects the target language to be the dominant, if not the sole, means of communication from the first day of the first class throughout the entire sequence of instruction. It is the teacher's responsibility to model behaviors expected of students. Knop, (1984) identifies these as "no excuse" areas for English usage in the foreign language class:

1. Greetings, leavetaking, and social exchange between teacher and students. Social amenities in the target language establish the expectation that the language will be used. Furthermore, students increase their ability to recognize acceptable social expressions before they are formally presented in the curriculum. While formulaic and routine, these exchanges should be personalized to fit the persons and situations of each class period.
2. Giving directions for instruction, management, and housekeeping. Think of phrases endlessly repeated: *Open your books . . . Go to the blackboard . . . We are on page 43, Exercise C . . . More loudly please . . . Quiet . . .* etc. Their repetitiousness plus the ease with which they can be shown as well as told places them high on the list of things alwasy to be said in the target language.
3. Brief explanations, particularly as they help students track their progress through the day's lesson. Most of us use set phrases to signal transitions in the lesson: *what we are doing now . . . That's all for now . . . Now we're going to . . . The test on lesson 4 will cover . . .* etc. Brief lesson plans can also be written on the board in the target language.
4. Probing, getting students to say one thing more. During daily recitation, students can be encouraged to expand upon their planned response by the teacher's asking one more probing question. Whatever the last sentence spoken by the student, a question asking *how often, how much, when, where, do you,* or *who else* may elicit spontaneous use of the language. It is also a check on the student's real understanding of what he/she just said.
5. Rewards, feedback, and emotional reactions. As teachers we need an extensive repertory of ways of letting students know when a response is good, acceptable, or needs some alteration. Variety, authenticity, and sensitivity are important in giving students feedback on their performance. It is equally useful to teach them ways of reacting both positively and negatively (qué bueno, quelle horreur) to announcements such as a quiz or a bit of school news.

Using the target language requires the teacher to keep the language within the comprehension level of the students and to exert great self-discipline in avoiding relapses into English. The results are well worth the effort.

Classroom Atmosphere

Classroom participation is a public performance in which each student risks embarrassment and failure. Developing a low-stress environment while keeping students on task and aware of what is important is, needless to say, a challenge. Positive reinforcement for desired behaviors should exceed instances of negative reinforcement for undesirable behaviors. There is evidence to suggest that positive reinforcement is the exception, not the rule. (Chance, 1985) On the first day of class, it may be more important to establish a climate in which each person feels a sense of belonging than to list the rules of conduct or the year's course objectives. Keeping all students involved is best done by calling on them all, avoiding "blind spots," moving throughout the classroom, and by giving moderate attention to each individual without overdoing it. Phrasing questions, adjusting pace or level of difficulty to assure adequate challenge can boost student self-confidence. Our questions should encourage students to take some risks while remaining optimistic about the probability of performing well. Adequate feedback on progress, interesting presentations, and novelty increase student interest and motivation. (Hunter, 1982) "I never ask the students to do something that I am not willing to do myself," says one award-winning teacher. (Rodriguez, 1985) Teachers who participate in classroom games, who encourage students to ask them questions or give them commands, and then who answer their questions and perform their commands, often humorously, establish a more orderly and dynamic classroom than any set of rules and regulations could create.

Madeline Hunter (1982) defines motivation as the "intent to learn." While we always hope for students possessing intrinsic motivation ("Teach me; I'm yours."), she reminds us that extrinsic motivation can be acquired. Although the tone of the classroom is important, building on the student's sense of success and progress is equally important. Charting progress toward goals can be more effective than keeping track of grades. This helps them measure progress in terms of themselves rather than by comparison with others' performances. For example: "Do you know that in this lesson you learned twenty-five new words of things to buy and where to buy them?" "When we finish lesson 9, you will be able to take your family to a Mexican restaurant and order a meal in Spanish."

Instructional Formats

Should we be astonished to learn that the majority of us favor instructional formats that limit rather than increase the amount of student use of the target language? A study conducted at the University of Wisconsin, (Nerenz & Knop, 1982) found that to be so, and my own informal observations corroborate those findings. In a study involving eight foreign language teachers, each one randomly observed eleven times over an eight-week period, these findings emerged. The amount of time spent in four different group sizes was as follows:

Large group (9 or more students)	74.8%
Individual	8.25%
Pairs	5.3%
Small group (3-8 students)	2.9%

Clearly, large group instruction was preferred by a vast majority of cooperating teachers.

By means of a set of observational procedures, the amount of teachers-student interaction was charted for each of the group sizes. The proportion of student talk to teacher talk was as follows:

Individual	.61/1
Large group	.85/1
Small group	3.78/1
Pairs	8.44/1

The favored large group instruction produced about a 50-50 oral exchange between students and teacher; that is, the students spoke nearly as much as the teachers. In individualized instruction, students spoke about 2/3 as often as teachers. In small group instruction, students spoke almost four times as much. However, during paired instruction, students spoke more than eight times as much as teachers.

The realities of teaching tell us that each group size has its proper place in a repertory of teaching techniques. Large group instruction is most effective in introducing a block of information or explaining a concept that is new to all the students. Such explanations must be followed by group practice to assist individuals in understanding the applications of the idea and to help the teacher identify potential areas of misunderstanding. Small groups and pairs offer increased opportunity for further drill, practice, and applications once the initial concept is understood. Because pairs reduces the number of human variables more than small groups, many teachers use pairs for drill and practice and small groups for more creative applications. And individual instruction is a useful remediation to help individuals keep up with the group or progress beyond the group-imposed limits.

If paired instruction can so dramatically increase student classroom use of language, why do so few of us use it regularly? It may be that discipline and student management represent a major concern. Uncertainty about which learning activities effectively complement paired instruction is another. Development of effective paired activities includes four steps: First, the teacher takes time to establish and practice the process by which each student works with a partner. For example, the teacher may explain that today's partner will be the person in front, behind, to the right, or to the left, depending on where you start. By changing seating arrangements two to four times per year, the number of potential partners multiplies. Time spent explaining the process and finding one's partner is time saved in all subsequent activities. Second, the teacher gives very specific task instructions so that there can be no doubt as to who is doing what. If, for example, the purpose of this paired exercise is to practice and master material from today's homework, the teacher may say: (Student A), you read the questions or cues from Exercise A and B. (Student B), you read the answers from your homework. If in doubt about the right answer, try to agree. If you can't agree, go on to the next one. As soon as you have finished, reverse roles. When Student B has asked the questions and Student A has answered, close your books and turn your homework face down." The third step is an extension of the second one of giving precise instructions about the task. Set specific time limits: "You have two minutes." A short time creates a sense of urgency. Too much time is encouragement to dawdle. If time is too short, extend the time period unobtrusively. The fourth and final step is to explain the payoff. What will be the consequences of this quick practice? In this instance, it might be a brief session in which the teacher asks the same questions that the students practiced with variations. The objective might be to get as many answers as possible within a short time. A simple scoring procedure facilitates translating the oral performance into an oral recitation grade. In summary, the four steps of practicing the "paired" process, giving precise task instructions, imposing time limits for task completion, and providing a payoff for doing it elimate most problems arising from student management.

Many teachers feel that the more mechanical the exercise, the more easily it lends itself to paired practice, thus saving the teacher's energy for more creative, open-ended language applications. When pairs and small groups are given the opportunity to work on something more creative, the teacher will have to make adjustments in time, task assignments, and feedback for the payoff. A first effort at a paired activity should be planned throughly so that success is guaranteed.

Teaching Activities

After the teacher has set the expectation of maximum language use in the classroom, has demonstrated by his/her own actions that expectation, has established a classroom atmosphere that encourages students to participate or "perform," has selected instructional groups that facilitate increased language use, what kinds of activities work best? The possibilities are endless, limited only by each individual's imagination and energy. Activities that require little or no prior preparation and that can be implemented spontaneously when the time feels right are often preferred. There are kinds of exercises that appear to consistently promote active student involvement in class, encourage progress toward communicative skills, and promote proficiency in language. Exercises that increase student participation and retention of learned content:

1. are placed in a context integrating the need for both linguistic and communicative competence.
2. refer to the learners themselves or others known to them. They are not anonymous and depersonalized.
3. emphasize language function and meaning, not form.
4. involve interactive use of authentic language. There is situational realism.
5. contain emotional material such as humor or pathos.
6. allow some student choice, opportunities for creativity, or drawing inferences through problem-solving and even guessing. They are not mechanical or predictable.
7. are clearly structured in expectations of what the students do, but provide open-ended possibilities. (Celce-Murcia, 1985; Omaggio, 1985; Robinson, 1985)

Here are some sample exercises that have many of the above characteristics and that are adaptable for use in small groups or pairs.

Navigator/Pilot
Skill: listening comprehension, speaking
Linguistic content: *to go*, geographical names, ordinal numbers, words and phrases expressing time or sequence.
The pilot is given a drawing representing a map of countries, town, streets of a neighborhood, or layout of the school. The navigator orally gives instructions on which places will be visited and in what order. The pilot either traces the route or numbers the sequence of places visited. When finished, the pilot checks with the navigator on the correctness of his/her paper. The students can then reverse roles.
Feedback: Question-answer session asking, "Where do you go? Tell me where she goes? Where is the third place you go? Is it near. . .?"

Decorator/Architect
Skill: listening comprehension, speaking or writing
Linguistic content: *to be, to put*, nouns of topic chosen, prepositions of location, cardinal points
This is a variation on *Pilot/Navigator*. Student A tells student B where to

place objects in a square or other defined space. These objects may represent furniture in a room, rooms in a house, stores around a square, departments in a store.

Order, please
Skill: listening comprehension, speaking
Linguistic content: common vocabulary from the current and/or previous lessons, syntax, adverbs of quantity or frequency (*mucho, un poco, beaucoup, un peu, pas du tout, muchas veces, a veces jamás, souvent, quelquefois, rarement*)
Teacher or student reads aloud items or activities in groups of three. Students individually rank them according to instructions (preference, frequency, usefulness, need, etc.). Pairs are then organized in which the partners compare how they are alike and different. Afterward, the teacher can survey the entire class by counting the number of preferences expressed for a given item. Conversational follow-up requires the students to make a statement about themselves and at least one other person in the room.

Twosies
Skill: writing, listening comprehension, speaking
Linguistic content: general vocabulary, sentence structure
Pairs of students write a series of statements (5-10) that may be judged by one of two criteria. Example: easy/difficult, possible/impossible, good/bad, interesting/dull, polite/impolite, responsible/irresponsible, American/French, American/Spanish, (in the target language, of course). The meaning of the sentences may encourage personal judgments or may state the obvious. Example: *Je peux toucher le nez avec le pied. Escribo mi tarea con una manzana.* Two pairs may take turns reading and reacting with each other.
Variation: Students may respond with an emotional exclamation to reveal their opinion of the statement. Example: *Toco la nariz con el pie. ¡Qué barbaridad!* or *Je nage tous les jours dans la piscine. Chouette!*
Variation: Expand twosies into threesies: possible/probable/impossible, polite/impolite/depends, easy/difficult/don't know, etc.

Psychologist
Skill: write or speak
Linguistic content: *to be, to think, to believe, to remember,* adjectives sentence structure, *because*
Students look at visuals from or related to the textbook (photos, drawings, transparencies, etc.). In pairs students invent situations and statements about what each person or thing is thinking or feeling and reasons why. In

feedback session, the teacher records types of answers on blackboard or overhead acetate. Comparability or divergence of answers can be a source of discussion.

Braggart/Having the last word
Skill: speaking
Linguistic content: sentence structure, modifiers
In pairs, Student A makes a statement using familiar vocabulary. Student B repeats the same sentence but adds one more word or phrase to it. Each keeps adding to the sentence until neither can add anything more that is meaningful. They count the number of words and sentences they were able to invent within the time limit. In feedback, the partners will say to the class the longest sentence they were able to create.

Mary/Gary quite contrary
Skill:speaking
Linguistic content: sentence structure, comparable elements within a sentence
In this variation on *Braggart*, Student A makes a statement. Student B restates it changing one element. They continue each one changing one part of the previously heard sentence. Within the time limits, they count the number of sentences they were able to make, what the first sentence and the last sentence were.

Spelling test
Skill: speak, listen, write
Linguistic content: alphabet, familiar vocabulary
Student A selects a group of words to dictate to Student B by spelling them aloud. Student B copies them as said by Student A. They check correctness of spelling against the list, then reverse roles.

Show and tell/giving instructions/following directions
Skill: speak, listening comprehension
Linguistic content: verbs, imperatives, subjunctive of wanting, will necessity, expressions of location
Student A tells Student B how to do something. Student B performs the act as directed. Examples: set the table, find an object in the room, assemble an object, rearrange a group of items, go to a specific destination.

Socializing
Skill: speak

Linguistic content: social formula and idiomatic expressions
The teacher describes a social situation; pairs of students invent responses to the situation. Example:

Student A	Student B
Introduce self or classmate; make one statement about that person.	Acknowledge introduction; ask a question relating to statement.
Ask a favor.	Accept with a condition or refuse and explain why.
Extend an invitation.	Accept and express thanks or appreciation. Decline with regrets or give excuse.
Make a series of statements about people you know or common	Acknowledge each one with an emotional exclamation (surprise, disgust, pleasure, acceptance, etc.).
Give a compliment.	Acknowledge or respond to the compliment.
Make a gossipy statement about a person	Ask a leading question about the statement.
State a problem. Try to secure help or advice.	Offer advice or ask for more information.
State an unfulfilled wish.	Encourage or discourage Student A in acting upon the wish.

Passport
Skill: write
Linguistic content: vocabulary of personal data and family relationships
After the teacher explains the kind of information requested on a passport application, pairs of students develop a form that requests biographical information (name, address, age, date of birth, family members—names, relationships, age).

This is your life
Skill: read, speak

Linguistic content: vocabulary of biographical data, personal experiences, and preferences
Pairs use the passport form as the basis for interviewing each other. As vocabulary and linguistic sophistication increases, they may add questions and information about likes and dislikes (sports, foods, colors, leisure activities, famous people, etc.), places visited, work information, personnal information about family members, etc.

ID Check
Skill: read, speak
Linguistic content: biographical data
From data gathered in paired interviews, ID cards can be made for all class members and kept in the classroom for year-long use. Information may be expanded to include likes and dislikes, personal heroes, things they have done, never done, want to do, can't do. Working in small groups, every student takes a card with information about another. One by one, students tell members of the group details from the card without revealing the student's name. Other group members try to guess the student's identity with the information they heard.

Photo finish
Skill: write, speak
Linguistic content: sentence structure, familiar vocabulary
Warm up or close out the last five minutes of class by distributing photos from a magazine or assigning a photo in the textbook. Each pair of students must then write as many questions and answers as they can about the photo. The next day, two pairs of students ask each other the questions they prepared.
Variation: Answers may be prepared, some of which are true and others untrue. The opposing pair has 15 seconds in which to study the photo before it is covered. They hear the statements about the photos and decide whether they are correct. Scores are kept on the number of right answers.

Sort and list
Skill: read
Linguistic content: recognition of vocabulary meaning, grammatical function, or pronunciation.
Give pairs of students 5-10 words randomly grouped. The words selected should have at least one element in common. Within the time limit (2-4 minutes depending on the number of words), students are to sort the words into two or more lists. Words may be sorted according to similarities or dissimilarities in meaning, sound, ways in which the object is used, times

when it is used, categories of actions, grammatical form, grammatical function, etc. Example: *el pan, la tortilla, la mermelada, la mantequilla, la taza, el café con leche, el plato, la servilleta, los huevos, el cuchillo.* In feedback, write or have a student record on the board the numbers of categories the students created, types of categories, what words fit, what words did not fit. Encourage students to explain their reasons for grouping words. This will reveal both convergent and divergent thinking.

Photojournalism
Skill: write
Linguistic content: autobiographical information
Students create their autobiographies using pictures, cartoons, collages, and drawings to which they write captions.

Real Characters
Skill: speak or write
Linguistic content: familiar vocabulary, sentence structure
In small groups or teams, the students write and present expanded versions of the dialogues in the textbook. They may either continue the dialogue from the point at which it ends, change crucial information in the dialogue, or invent a variation on the same dialogue.
Variation: They can make up biographies for the dialogue characters (background, origins, occupations, physical appearance).

. . .and there are more. Each of the above activities provides a core or framework that can be used with variations in lexical groups, verb tenses, other grammatical structures, and additional complications involving various people as the students' linguistic sophistication increases. Clear instructions and demonstrating what is wanted within the large group will help pairs and small groups get off to a good start. For additional variations, a listening comprehension activity can be expanded to include speaking; speaking activities may require writing; writing may involve reading; and finally reading may be recast as a listening comprehension exercise. While the instructional materials provide the linguistic material on which to build participation, it is the enthusiastic involvement of the teacher that will promote increased student participation. This kind of participation must receive an appropriate reward in the teacher's grading system. The enthusiastic teacher who sets high expectations for students, models those expectations, organizes them for maximum interaction, and provides meaningful situations for that interaction is the one most likely to enjoy the benefits of increased student participation.

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14

Making Language Study Real:

Skill Development with Authentic Language Samples

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First of all, why is there concern with making foreign language study real? In a statement referring to students studying English in Shanghai, Johns and Davies point out that:

> Many ESL students think of the classroom as a place separate from the real world, where teachers use a special language seldom found elsewhere and discuss this language as an object for study rather than a vehicle of communication. (1981)

Johns (1985) refers to this phenomenon in a discussion of the development of materials for use in the ESL classroom. There are now many materials that do emphasize "communication," and many of us try to simulate reality in a variety of ways. It is discouraging to find that despite our many antics and teaching tricks (*à la Rassias*, etc.), we do not always succeed (Bouma, 1985). Once a graduate student of French studying at Laval University in Quebec told me that French did not become real to her until she observed that it was the language on the toothpaste tube! Her experience came after four years of French as an undergraduate and during her Masters Degree Program! Making English real to international students in the United States of course is not quite the same as teaching it in China, but even here we need to capitalize on the world around us. Teaching a foreign language (e.g., French, Spanish, or German) is analagous. Those of us who teach in large metropolitan areas have a number of resources at hand; those of us who teach in small rural communities have a difficult time making the language real. The challenge is ours.

What allows a language "to live" or "to become real" for our students? Of primary importance is the use of the language for real communication. In such classes, we as teachers sometimes lose our anonymity and must deal with letting our students know us as real people. Speaking of real people, native speakers make a language come alive! Most of us try to invite native speakers to visit our classes: it has been my experience that the more one does to involve native speakers in classes, the more interested students become. There are many ways that this can be done, and we should explore all of the possibilities to bring exchange students and teachers into our schools and should at least identify the native speakers within commuting distance of our schools.

In addition to resource persons, we can make authentic *things* available—some of them in print form but many (like the toothpaste tube) simply items taken from everyday life. High school teachers are usually very good at having a "culture table" or "culture corner" complete with bulletin board, magazines, and all sorts of *realia*. The same kind of atmosphere should be present on the college/university level, especially since we are still teaching the beginning student.

The reluctance to put such items out in the classroom sometimes is the result of not wanting to have them "walk away." It is possible to provide those items we do not wish to lose on a checkout basis. It has been my experience, however, that most of my *realia* is returned and, although students need to be reminded to take things home with them, they become more interested once they do.

If we want to use such material optimally, it must be integrated into the language study per se. This is where the selection of materials becomes so important. Many materials are now available for purchase at our language conferences. Of the items available, some can be simply "of interest." With a little bit of thought and creativity, they can be made a part of the course. For example, a children's book of colors was "of interest" to my classes. I now *use* it as they learn the vocabulary of colors in their book. Other children's books are useful because they have a wealth of pictures in them. The key for the teacher is to find a way to complement or enhance the study of a language by *using* such materials.

One problem cited by some teachers is that such materials are considered inappropriate and are not well accepted by older students. We teachers must be devious; one tactic that has been successful for me is to present material to students and enlist their aid to critique it in terms of its content, organization, etc. Also, it is possible to ask college age students if they would use it if they were teaching a class of youngsters in which the material would be appropriate (a "role-playing" situation). Students like to be respected for their mature judgment and for their opinions.

Another question one must ask is the following. What are the possibilities that exist for the use of authentic materials? Recently the thrust of the development of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines has been the development of tests of oral competency. It is disappointing that the emphasis has been placed on oral production and that listening comprehension was not the first skill to be considered for testing. Based on my own experience and coupled with my research readings in the field of listening comprehension, my primary emphasis would have been on listening since many students (especially ESL/EFL students) who have been trained in programs that have emphasized oral skills do not have an adequate command of listening comprehension. On more than one occasion we have probably encountered individuals who were able to mask their inability to understand by maintaining the floor and communicating in a very articulate manner with themselves! Listening is a skill that, even in one's native language, is sometimes lacking. We must, in the foreign language classroom, assist students to become "good listeners." This requires a lot of practice and appropriate material: authentic material.

The use of authentic audio materials in the elementary stages of foreign language courses is recommended. So often such material is used only with advanced learners. All students need to be exposed from the beginning to what *real* language sounds like. I am reminded of the commercial that ends: "So this is the dining room!" Hopefully, if we expose our students early on to authentic language in authentic settings, they will not be saying (when they arrive in a foreign country and hear native speakers using the language): "So this is French (or Spanish or German, etc.)!"

It may not be possible to provide a complete program for listening comprehension unless listening has been incorporated into the text material being used, at least not immediately. We can begin to supplement the provided materials, however, with a plan for the design of instruction and an understanding of the various levels of difficulty. Figure 1 provides a model for the design of instructional material, and Figure 2 depicts the scope and sequence, or difficulty levels, of materials that can be used. Many language educators have advocated the use of dictation, and in partial or total dictation exercises we can both test and teach. Currently, dictation is looked upon favorably as a technique for instruction and testing. (Stanfield, 1985).

Figure 1 provides a model designed to assist in the development of authentic materials in an instructional format. It is obvious that the first steps must be to determine the skills of the students as well as their general background and interests as we attempt to identify the specific objective of the instructional component. Next, we must identify suitable material that can be used and determine how we wish for it to be used. It is important that we consider what we will expect students to be able to do once they have

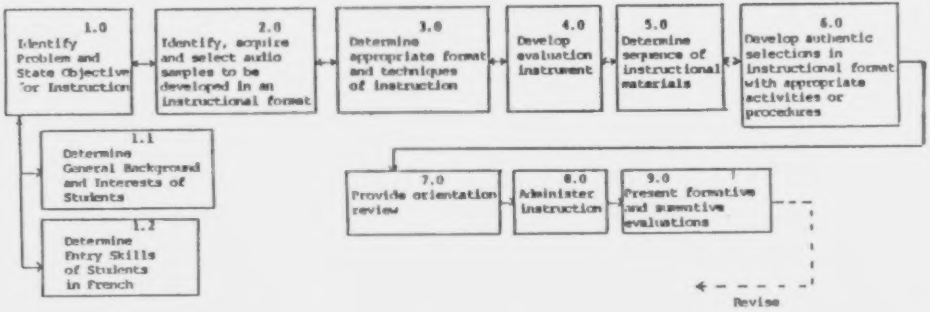
1.0
Identify Problem and State Objective for Instruction
2.0
Identify, acquire and select audio samples to be developed in an instructional format
3.0
Determine appropriate format and techniques of instruction
4.0
Develop evaluation instrument
5.0
Determine sequence of instructional materials
6.0
Develop authentic selections in instructional format with appropriate activities or procedures
1.1
Determine General Background and Interests of Students
1.2
Determine Entry Skills of Students in French
7.0
Provide orientation review
8.0
Administer instruction
9.0
Present formative and summative evaluations
Revise

Figure 1. Model for systematic design of authentic controlled audio materials to teach listening comprehension.

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completed the instructional sequence *before* we develop the sequence. The double arrows indicate the option for revision and reconsideration at any point. With the development of the evaluation instrument, we should have a clear understanding of the scope and sequence of the material to be covered. Since we are considering the development of authentic audio materials in an instructional format, at this time, it is necessary to determine the readiness of the students and orient them to the dictation format and to the characteristics of natural speech. I am reminded of the international student who was experiencing great difficulty understanding what he claimed was "One word which I hear everywhere and do not understand!" He finally mustered his courage and told me what the word was: "whachuhgonna." He was amazed when I explained that it was actually five words: "what are you going to . . .!" He was unprepared for natural, everyday speech patterns of native English speakers and the phonological reductions that occur. Phonological reductions are even more prevalent in French, and I found that the use of materials such as those prepared by Pimsleur (1974) very helpful for students of French planning to work with authentic language samples. Preparation must be considered.

Figure 2 illustrates all of the different kinds of audio material: contrived materials, controlled authentic materials, authentic materials (with and without familiar subject matter). Students need to be exposed to all types, if they are to be expected to process all of them. It is suggested that, while practice and exposure might incorporate even the most difficult level, namely "Authentic Materials, which are unfamiliar to the listener," the mastery level expected and for which the students are tested may be much less demanding. It is suggested that the "scope and sequence" be used to determine their mastery level and assist the students to move to more difficult levels. It would be advantageous for the students to have as much exposure to as many levels as possible in order to become familiar with the ultimate levels. This must be done with care so that the students do not become frustrated or overwhelmed. When necessary, students should be placed *individually* with regard to the appropriatness of content of material and level of difficulty.

With the instructional development model in mind and with the "levels" of difficulty considered, we can begin to choose materials. In the category of "Controlled Authentic Materials," Walt Disney type materials spark great interest due to the expressive delivery of the narrators as they tell the *familiar* fairy tales. The use of fairy tales is advocated by a number of language educators because the content is familiar and students can guess intelligently as they listen to them or as they read them. (Meyer, 1984, and McArthur, 1975) Radio broadcasts are available on short wave and it is

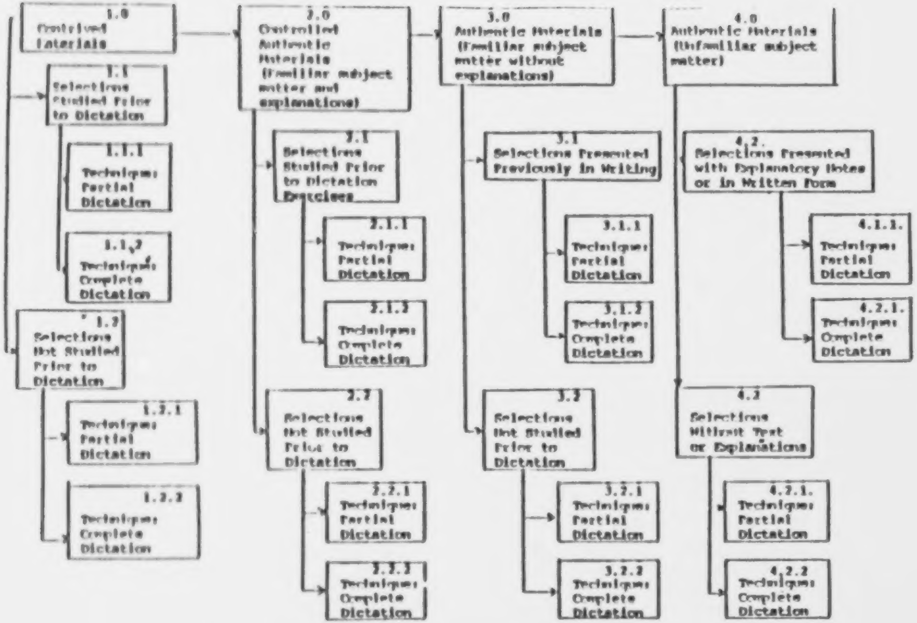
1.0
Contrived Materials
1.1
Selections Studied Prior to Dictation
1.1.1
Technique: Partial Dictation
1.1.2
Technique: Complete Dictation
1.2
Selections Not Studied Prior to Dictation
1.2.1
Technique: Partial Dictation
1.2.2
Technique: Complete Dictation
2.0
Controlled Authentic Materials (Familiar subject matter and explanations)
2.1
Selections Studied Prior to Dictation Exercises
2.1.1
Technique: Partial Dictation
2.1.2
Technique: Complete Dictation
2.2
Selections Not Studied Prior to Dictation
2.2.1
Technique: Partial Dictation
2.2.2
Technique: Complete Dictation
3.0
Authentic Materials (Familiar subject matter without explanations)
3.1
Selections Presented Previously in Writing
3.1.1
Technique: Partial Dictation
3.1.2
Technique: Complete Dictation
3.2
Selections Not Studied Prior to Dictation
3.2.1
Technique: Partial Dictation
3.2.2
Technique: Complete Dictation
4.0
Authentic Materials (Unfamiliar subject matter)
4.2.
Selections Presented with Explanatory Notes or in Written Form
4.1.1.
Technique: Partial Dictation
4.2.1.
Technique: Complete Dictation
4.2
Selections Without Text or Explanations
4.2.1.
Technique: Partial Dictation
4.2.2
Technique: Complete Dictation

Figure 2. Suggested spectrum and sequence of material using dictation and technique for developing listening comprehension in a second language.

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possible to order material now from a variety of sources. The use of radio has been advocated by many. (Felt, 1973; Nelson and Wood, 1975; Seigneuret, 1972) Using radio news can be incorporated into the dictation format easily once the text has been transcribed (not always an easy task if static is present or if a dialect is present). Referring to the levels of difficulty, it is obvious that we must choose familiar topics covered in the news if we expect our students to process them before they have reached the mastery level of "Authentic Materials, unfamiliar subject matter." (Figure 2, 4.0)

In many cases, material presented aurally for instruction in a content area lends itself to adaptation for language exercises. Of course, as is true when using print material, vocabulary explanations can enable students to work with material that is linguistically more difficult than that of their language text. Along with the vocabulary explanations, any idioms, slang expressions, dialect usage, or unfamiliar grammatical forms can be explained and treated as vocabulary entries.

Authentic materials are becoming increasingly available within this country both in stores and via cable and satellite hook-ups. We must find ways to develop and distribute (legally) materials of an authentic nature that have been prepared in an instructional format and evaluated in a classroom setting. The implementation of such materials as an integral part of a language class is part of the answer to the question: "How do I make it real?" We need to share our ideas and pool our resources as a profession.

Instructional Modules

English	American Medical Association film: *New Pulse of Life* (Pyramid Films) Encore Visuals filmstrip/cassette: *Snack Facts* *Walt Disney Productions* *Fairy Tale Books with cassettes*
French	Newscast from France on Watergate Walt Disney Productions Fairy Tale Books with cassettes
Spanish:	Walt Disney Productions Fairy Tale Books with cassettes

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15

Trivial Pursuit® in the Foreign Language Classroom

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TRIVIAL PURSUIT® is a unique and fascinating intellectual game that has achieved a very high status in the mind of the public.[1] If one is good at TRIVIAL PURSUIT one is considered to be "smart," especially among young people. The game is so successful because it simultaneously caters to two very important cultural needs in all of us, the quest for knowledge, and the urge to play. The players think and enjoy at the same time. There are almost unlimited possibilities for expansion, and the rules of play are very flexible. These features and the almost total dependence on precise oral expression make TRIVIAL PURSUIT an excellent means to train students to converse spontaneously in the target language for an extended period of time in the classroom and at language club get-togethers.

Most students have spent hours playing TRIVIAL PURSUIT with great enthusiasm in English, and they are familiar with the rules and the format of the questions. When they find out that TRIVIAL PURSUIT is available in the language they are studying, their curiosity is aroused and they are eager to play. As soon as the first question is read, all inhibitions about speaking in the target language disappear and the magic of trivia hunting takes over. The players discuss the questions, sometimes argue about them and often voice disappointment, even disgust when they cannot answer a seemingly easy question. They constantly employ different types of structure—questions, statements, commands, exclamations—and a wealth of vocabulary.

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[1] Trivial Pursuit is the registered trademark of Horn Abbot Ltd. in Canada, the Union of South Africa, and the United States of America and is the registered trademark of Horn Abbot International Ltd. throughout the rest of the world.

TRIVIAL PURSUIT is now available in German, French, Italian, and Spanish.[2] Questions of universal knowledge have been translated and appear in their appropriate categories, giving students the advantage of familiarity. The students really get excited when they understand this type of question and respond to it, even if they don't know all the words that are used to state the question. Familiar questions take on a whole new aura for the students when they hear them in the foreign language.

To market the game successfully in other countries, the authors have replaced questions very particular to Anglo-American culture with questions relating to the foreign culture, especially in the areas of current events, sports, and entertainment. Looking for the answers to these questions often leads to fruitful discussions, which provide unusual insights into the interests and concerns of the German-, French-, or Spanish-speaking countries.

Because the original TRIVIAL PURSUIT was translated and altered to challenge native speakers, it works best in advanced classes that are oriented towards oral proficiency. At the same time, the game is so adaptable that modified versions can be introduced on the elementary and intermediate levels. With the textbook as a source and by soliciting ideas from the students, the instructor creates game cards for the different levels. Categories can be changed to make the game more vocabulary or structure oriented. To add suspense, and to challenge the better students as well, some difficult questions are included in the game.

To ensure success on all levels, the instructor must set clear goals for the students and for the game's place in the overall program. The students need to understand that the game is a means to improve oral proficiency. Several days before playing time, the instructor assigns the vocabulary necessary to conduct the game. The rules of play in the target language serve as a guide for assembling the list. The students receive a handout, which may have the following format:

> The main purpose for playing TRIVIAL PURSUIT in class is for you to develop your oral skills in the target language.
>
> You will learn to respond spontaneously to unfamiliar questions.
>
> You will find out that you can figure out meanings without knowing all the words.

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[2] The German, French, Italian, and Spanish versions are available from Teacher's Discovery, 1130 E. Big Beaver Rd., Troy, MI 48083-1997; toll-free number: 1-800-521-3897.

You will get into the habit of thinking in the target language.

You will receive a wealth of information about the foreign country.

At the same time you will have fun playing a popular game.

The language of communication throughout the game is the target language.

Any English word I hear is an "illegal motion," and the player who is at play forfeits his turn.

Learn the words and phrases necessary for the mechanics of the game.

You are responsible for the vocabulary listed on the blackboard and the cultural information assigned.

Winning is fun but it is not as important as learning the art of formulating good questions and answers. Finding an answer through lively discussion in the target language is more beneficial than completing the game.

Before play begins, the class decides whether the basic rules of play are to be followed or if changes need to be made to allow for limited time. If the students wish to complete the game in one 45- to 50-minute class session, a shorter version can be agreed upon. One possibility is that the player does not have to land on a corner to receive a wedge for a correct answer in a given category. He will receive a wedge every time he lands on a color and answers the appropriate question correctly. In small classes each student plays individually, in large classes several students form a team and select a team speaker who is responsible for stating the answer. Another member of the team serves as the reader of the question for the next team. To practive pronunciation and to get the students accustomed to listening to each other, players take turns in reading the questions.

While the students are playing, the instructor works with the different aspects of language acquisition. He compiles a list of the new words the students should learn for vocabulary building. He promotes discussions about an especially intriguing question. Although the questions occur at random, it is possible to group certain questions together and hold the students responsible for the information. In the category "History," for example, several questions about one important event may come up, giving the students a chance to do further study on the subject.

To make sure that the students take the game seriously, the instructor may follow up by giving quizzes. Vocabulary quizzes can be made more attractive by stating a question with a blank to fill in the word to be learned.

Quizzes about content can be in the form of "True or False" or in stating the answers and letting the students formulate the questions.

The best time to introduce **TRIVIAL PURSUIT** in a class is after the first half of a term when the instructor is familiar with the ability and compatibility of the students. By that time, the students know each other and can contribute to a congenial atmosphere that is conducive to language learning.

Since the original **TRIVIAL PURSUIT** is too difficult for elementary and intermediate students, the instructor will create an appropriate version for these levels. The familiar **TRIVIAL PURSUIT** color coding is applied to a slightly changed set of categories. The selection of categories and questions is determined by the text and by the material covered and allows the instructor to reinforce certain areas of vocabulary, structure, and cultural information. The following set of categories was developed from an elementary and intermediate text in German:

Original TRIVIAL PURSUIT Category	Elementary/Intermediate Foreign Language Category
Geography	Geography
Entertainment	Food, Drink, Holidays
History	History and Politics
Art and Literature	Art and Literature
Science and Nature	Science and Nature
Sports and Leisure	Vocabulary and Miscellaneous

The two categories that have been changed in the example above contain mostly questions that can be answered only by players who have a thorough knowledge of the country's present cultural concerns and interests. In most foreign language texts the subject of eating and feasting occurs early because it is of great interest to the students. What people eat, how, when, and why supplies the material for many questions of varying form and difficulty. "Vocabulary" can stand as a category by itself, if the instructor wishes to emphasize vocabulary building. There are many ways to elicit answers in the target language including the following:

Where do you find a ________?
What do you do with a ________?
Who uses a ________?
What is the opposite of ________?

"Miscellaneous" may contain questions about the meaning of important abbreviations, the age at which young people can obtain a driver's license, business hours of stores and banks, and other trivia that do not fit in any other category.

The game created for the lower levels will resemble the original TRIVIAL PURSUIT more closely, if a few very obscrue and difficult questions pop up here and there. The students gladly accept the challenge because they feel that they are doing the real thing.

In the beginning, a set of thirty to thirty-five cards with questions for each of the six categories is sufficient to play a good game. If a computer is available, it is easier to keep track of the questions by creating a data base. Questions and answers are coded by number, category, and level, if desired. They are arranged for print on address labels. The printed labels are affixed to large index cards in the order of the categories. After the cards have been color coded, they are ready for play.

Imaginative students are a great resource for expanding the game. The practice of formulating clear and precise questions that elicit the desired answers adds a new dimension to the language learning experience. Submitting questions can be part of an assignment or extra credit work. Guidelines for evaluation should include ratings for originality, correct use of structure and vocabulary.

Playing games in the foreign language classroom is a risky business because it may give students and outsiders the impression that foreign language is not a serious field of study. But TRIVIAL PURSUIT is not just a game; it is a constant quest for knowledge. Based on intellectual stimulation and generating spontaneous dialogue, the game contains some of the most important objectives of foreign language teaching. These objectives include expansion of vocabulary in a great variety of areas, valuable and current information on politics, the arts, history, sports, and entertainment, and above all active and effective oral use of the foreign language in a relaxed setting that is quite close to real life.

16

Reversing the Role of the Foreign Language Lab:

From Practice to Presentation

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In the past two years my enthusiasm for teaching a foreign language has turned from near burn-out to blast-off because of a change in my use of the language laboratory. By reversing the role of the lab from practice to presentation, my class time has become more exciting and more meaningful. This paper will reveal how this came about through a review of my experiences regarding the reality of the lab requirement and the traditional role of the lab as well as a review of the lessons learned through the years.

The Reality of the Lab Requirement

In the fall of 1982 I was recruited to develop a foreign language program at the University of North Alabama. I left a well-oiled program in which we had just purchased our fourth listen-record laboratory, having completely worn out the other three over a twenty-year period. Upon arrival at UNA I discovered that there was a requirement similar to those in many universities for two hours of language lab per week for the elementary classes. Unfortunately, there was no language lab and very few tapes. In a few weeks we miraculously created a listening lab manned by minimally trained upper-level language majors using the regular tapes produced for the textbooks we were using. The labs meet on Tuesday and Thursday: five Spanish, four French, and three German. Upper-level classes use the education library listening facilities with the tapes being handled by the circulation desk.

Throughout this trauma as we struggled with the proposal to ask the university for $35,000 or $40,000 for a language lab, I began to do some soul-searching and reflecting on twenty-two years of teaching of French and Spanish and researching methodology. The first step was to review the effectiveness of the traditional role of the language lab.

Reviewing the Traditional Role of the Language Lab

A widely cited study entitled *Language Laboratory Facilities* published in 1963 by HEW has a chapter on "Why a Language Lab?" In this rationale Alfred Hayes reminds us that "practice is, then, essential to understanding and speaking a foreign language." Then he concludes in bold print: "To provide this practice is the fundamental role of the language laboratory." (Hayes, p. 15) Soon thereafter in Wilga River's (1968) celebrated text on language teaching methodology, we find the same basic premise that the role of the language lab is for practice of aural and oral skills to accompany the audio-lingual method of developing linguistic habits. She does warn us that there was nothing automatic or certain about the use of the language lab. As a matter of fact, she discusses the negative 1963 Keating study, which though somewhat refuted, cast doubts on the validity of the premises on which the language labs were built.

Those of us who were teaching and using language labs in our methodology were trying desperately to make them genuinely useful and cost-effective. We questioned the results that rarely seemed sommensurate with the expense and time involved. The labs were not living up to expectations even with our best efforts. Some schools kept the five-day-a-week schedule of five regular classes with lab as an optional activity.

The *Language Annual—1967*, published by the Center for Curriculum Development, has an excellent article by Pierre Shertz entitled "What to do with a Language Laboratory?" which was translated from *Le Français dans le Monde*. Shertz enthusiastically gives advice about the use of the lab, but finally concludes that the lab does not appear to him to be "absolutely indispensable," and that as it is presently conceived, "condemns itself and has probably lived out the better part of its life." He does feel that the tape recorder and projector are indispensable to the language teacher (pp. 42-49).

In 1969, Peter Oliva's text on foreign language methodology reflected the traditional role of the language as an essential partner to the audio-lingual method: "The primary function of the language laboratory is the conduct of drill in the foreign language." (Oliva, p. 189) The premise that practice makes perfect is only true, of course, if the practice is proper. It took the Pennsylvania study (Smith, 1968) to begin to slow down the flood of millions of dollars being spent on language laboratory equipment.

In December of 1969, after a statewide, elaborate evaluation, the audio-lingual method, which many classroom teachers doubted from the beginning, and its partner, the language lab, were shown to be houses built on sandy ground. One critic of the study admits: "From the results of the study it cannot be argued that more time in 'habit formation' and drill acquisition in the early phases of language instructions has long-term benefits that show up only at later stages." (Carroll, p. 235) Students in the Pennsylvania study using more or less traditional methods proved to do as well as or better than audio-lingual students who spent additional time in the language laboratory.

There is an excellent review of the Pennsylvania project as well as three others in an appendix dealing with labs in Chastain's 1971 text on second-language acquisition. In a fair and open-minded treatment of the value of the lab, he reports a condition that still exists somewhat even today: "Neither subjective evaluation nor research evidence has been able to gather sufficient force to convince the profession to use the lab wholeheartedly or to discard it entirely." (Chastain, p. 539)

Three years later in Allen and Valette's textbook (1972, p. 28), we find only two basic paragraphs dealing with the language laboratory. The commentary draws attention to the trend away from language labs to media centers. The 1974 ACTFL Review points out the continuing trend toward media centers. It reports also the lack of enthusiasm on the part of teachers for media centers because of "their past bad experiences with language labs." (Levy, pp. 26-27) In the following ACTFL Review it is reported that the language laboratory has fallen into "disrepute", citing a study that students complain primarily about the lack of coordination between lab and classroom activities, poor equipment, and non-language-oriented lab directors. (Reinert, P. 283)

The sad fact has been, nonetheless, that we have thousands of rooms filled with booths and recorders across the counntry and new labs being installed continually. Some teachers have tenaciously tried to carry on under the assumption that the lab would somehow improve the conversational skills of their students. With the exception of those using the labs for individualized instruction, one finds little clear evidence of their relative value. (Levy, 1974)

By 1982 we begin to see articles like "What Can Be Done with a Language Lab?" This article describes a situation where the old lab is turned into a sort of foreign language students' lounge with a little equipment for their use. (Nimmons) The following year McCoy and Weible make an obvious conclusion to their commentary on language labs:

> For most students, however, the language lab became synonymous with meaningless repetition, an identity which was transferred in part to language learning as a whole. To some extent it is accurate to say that our profession has spent the last 15 years working to overcome the negative effects of this mindless embrace of what should have been a highly helpful instructional medium. (McCoy and Weible, pp. 137-43)

Although the traditional role of the foreign language lab has been a doubtful one from the very start, many of us are still faced with a lab requirement and all the accompanying negatives.

Remembering the Lessons Learned

The second step in my review was to call into focus other factors that my language teaching experience has taught me in addition to the fact that the lab was hardly cost effective if effective at all. The most obvious problem was that the students and the teacher never seemed to have enough time in class. The direct method, which everyone seemed to embrace, takes "forever." The St. Cloud method promised basic conversational skills after 500 contact hours. More recent researchers tell us that 720 contact hours are required to reach a level of 2+ in proficiency. According to my calculations, that might require 17 semesters at one 3-hour course per semester.

Secondly, speaking only the target language in class requires long explanations that are often difficult for students to understand even in English. The level of mental dropout and frustration when students do not know what is going on in class is high indeed. The level of frustration of the *true* beginners in the various direct methods used by the Centre International des Etudes Françaises at the Université de Nice is often high because they do not easily grasp what is taking place in the classes.

A third realization recalled was the genuinely valid use of the lab to present an authentic native model. That, of course, can be accomplished by a simple cassette recorder. In evaluating outstanding programs as a member of various Southern Association of Schools and Colleges evaluation teams, my observations were that the prize-winning private school programs did not rely on or even have a lab, but, they did use records and cassette recorders to present native models.

The fourth item remembered was the hatred developed within students trying to do lab exercises that were too complicated, too fast, and too far removed from their classroom activities. This was one of the first reactions to the new tapes we were using at UNA. The lab assistants were constantly having to stop the tape to explain what was supposed to be going on.

A positive recollection relative to the lab was that it had always been effective to use lab time to give a *dictée*. Each class was sure to get the same dictation, and it tied the lab to the previous classroom activity.

Again on the negative side, there never seened to be enough time in the typical college lab structure for the student to play back what he had recorded for comparative examination. Even when some time was available for playback comparison, most students could only conclude that they do not sound like the native. Unless they had a superior aural-oral mechanism, which is rare, correction was virtually impossible without the aid of a teacher. As a result of this experience and other evidence, I did not push for a listen-record lab. (Johnson, 1966)

Through my review of the variety of recent strategies for second-language acquisition, I came to the conclusion that the role of the language lab is negligible. Professor Rassias's effective use of student assistants is a good example of an alternative.

Last, and certainly not least, my recollection was that the primary obstacles in the development of communication skills, for which the lab was designed, were the psychological barriers resulting from real personal interaction. The only way I had ever seen these barriers overcome was in the process of ***human*** interaction. The affective domain of direct human communication cannot be duplicated in a man to machine relationship. Person-to-person practice is the only logical training ground. The human affective elements of interference simply do not exist when a human faces a machine, nor even a video. Recent scholarship attests to the importance of dealing with affective barriers. (Higgs, p. 3)

Reversing the Role

With all those factors in mind, it was disconcerting to observe the first-year labs doing business as usual. The tapes were too difficult, the same old negative attitudes were present among the students, and the usual nagging doubts existed with the teachers. At that point, I realized what we had known from the outset. Looking back at the 1963 HEW publication on language laboratories, sandwiched in the midst of Hayes's pro-lab rationale, he states the obvious: "A competent teacher, who makes the best use of time, and has access to good materials, can indeed successfully provide the kind of practice required." (Hayes, p. 15)

How could we find time to have more practice in class and not spend so much time explaining and presenting the lesson, even though we customarily used the target language? The answer was so apparent that it was embarrasing. The lab could be used for presenting the lesson, and class time could be used for practice.

We are now into the second year of reversing the lab's role by using it to present the lesson rather than to practice it. Our procedure involves three basic steps.

Step one: An upper-level student who has had at least two years of the language, preferably a major with some personality as well as skill, plays the first portion of the tapes produced by the textbook company in order to give some practice in pronunciation and to give an opportunity for hearing authentic, varied models.

Step Two: A cassette tape made by me in English presents the lesson (twenty-one per semester) in three parts: pronunciation, grammar, and exercises. In going over the pronunciation I try to use the same language one might use in the classroom: "Let's do that again. That's a tough one." Occasionally, my bloops and bleepers are not deleted. The students love them. Contrary to what professionally prepared tapes do, special attention is given to exceptions and omissions such as "Notice that I do not pronounce the "e" in *samedi*." As for the grammar, what is in the textbook is read with pauses for pronunciation practice and additional commentary. When we come to the exercises, the purpose of each one is explained and they are given clear instructions about what will be expected of them in class: "This is what I will say in class . . ., and this is what you will say. . . ." Part if not all of each exercise is practiced.

Step Three: At the conclusion of the tape the student assistants ask if they may help with any pronunciation problems or in clarifying an explanation or exercise.

One other lab activity not a part of the presentation is a *dictée* on the previous lesson.

Results of the Reversal

There are several positive results:

1. The rate of withdrawal from the elementary classes has been reduced from 28 percent to 10 percent with no change in testing standards or rate of progress. We still cover twenty-one lessons per semester.
2. The average grades have increased at least one letter. After my first year, the Dean noted that my grades were a bit low. This past summer, his red pen noted on my grade distribution sheet that my grades were slightly above the university average.
3. Lab attendance is much greater than in the past.
4. Attention during the lab sessions is nearly perfect with students taking notes and pronouncing aloud with little or no encouragement necessary.
5. Students who miss lab can get a thorough explanation of the lesson by listening to a copy of the tape, which is put into the School of Education library at the conclusion of the regular lab. The students are very happy with this arrangement since it allows them to catch up easily without having to track down the teacher or another student for help.
6. There is adequate class time to practice the exercises and genuine conversation.

7. More importantly, I am enthusiastic about what I am doing because it makes sense to me. Given the required conditions and circumstances, I feel that we are making the best use of our class time.

If what Professor Higgs says is true, then the last result is definitely a significant step forward: "The affective environment in the classroom may well be more influenced by a teacher's feeling of confidence than by externally imposed considerations of methodology." (Higgs, p. 3)

On the negative side, the vital visual element is limited during the presentation to what is in the textbook, unless the lab assistant uses the board in making a point of clarification.

Refining the Reversal

During this present year, the presentation tapes have been improved to include more explanation about the exercises. There is a search in progress for a textbook that includes more thorough explanations in English, which will in turn make the lab sessions more comprehensible. If our budget requests are granted, we will move enthusiastically toward putting the presentations on video cassettes which would, of course, greatly improve the visual stimulus. (Berwald, 1970) The video cassette will, undoubtedly, be a significant improvement on what is already proving to be a more meaningful use of the language laboratory.

We are only in the second year of this experiment, and only about three hundred students have been involved. Yet, intuitively, it seems to be a viable, logical alternative. The true value will be determined by the degree of success of our students' acquisition of a second language.

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17

The Computer in the Foreign Language Classroom:

"Mogwai" or Gremlin?

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The computer in the foreign-language classroom: "mogwai" or gremlin? According to a popular horror-fantasy film last summer, a cute little cuddly, furry creature known as a "mogwai" can, when certain rules are broken (such as no light, no water, no food after midnight), become a host of hideous monstersintent on devouring their masters and wreaking general havoc in a household. There seems to be a certain analogy, although perhaps only slight, with the use of computers in an academic setting. The computer can be fun, playful, even "cute," but when the "rules" are broken (such as no structured presentation, no sound pedagogical principle, no supervision, etc.), it can become no more than an electronic "babysitter," wreaking general havoc with our lesson plans, our classroom presentations, and overall student performance.

Between these two extremes of a "cute" toy to be brought out of the academic closet only when boredom sets in and a mechanical monster that monopolizes precious classroom time with little residual benefit, there appears to be what the French call *le juste milieu*, or "golden mean," in the use of computers in foreign-language teaching. During a first experience with computers in an intermediate French class at Auburn University, in which, as an experiment, we attempted to utilize the computer as a *complement* to teaching instead of a replacement for personal interactive instruction between the teacher and student. It is to be hoped that the results of this experience may encourage others who have been somewhat hesitant to let the "newfangled electronic contraptions" invade their classrooms to experiment themselves with the computer as an ever-ready teacher's assistant, who will never become impatient after answering the same question over and over and over again, even at the end of a very long day, without even a single coffee break in the faculty lounge.

As further encouragement for direct involvement with computers in the foreign language classroom, one must view my comments as coming from a "computer convert," who, having shied away as long as possible from the new electronic gadgetry being used all around me, is and was far from a computer expert. However, by reading numerous articles in periodicals such as *Computers and Humanities*, by seeing success stories reported in education literature, and by hearing friends and colleagues in other disciplines tell me of their exciting accomplishments with the computer, it became quite obvious that "computers are here to stay." They are no fad, no whim of pedagogical fashion. They are not like the short-lived "teaching machines" of the late fifties and early sixties whose lack of flexibility and direct interaction with the student soon belied many so-called experts' prediction that these marvelous machines would become the teacher-robots of the future, eventually replacing the warm-blooded bodies in our profession. We are still very much alive and well in the classroom and certainly intend to be so for quite some time. But since we are "still here," what can we do to assure that we can adapt to ever-changing technology and environmental situations? Perhaps my personal experience of adaptation at Auburn in a sixth-quarter French class, in which intensive grammar review plays a significant part, can offer a beginning to the answer to that question.

After my decision to use the computer in some way in my course, it was discovered, to my dismay, that high-quality software or pre-packaged programs for French were practically non-existent or difficult to obtain, and even if they were available, they were not at all compatible with my text. The grammar units were introduced at different times, at a more simplistic level, etc. I even discovered some programs on the market where unbelievable grammatical errors abounded. I am afraid the culprit in these instances is the software company who hired a computer specialist with only a couple of years of high-school French to write the programs. (Recent good news is that more and more foreign language teachers are becoming directly involved with software development.) Therefore, my last resort was to write the programs exactly as needed. Fortunately, my elementary experience with the BASIC computer language was enough to get me started. It did not take long to absorb just enough principles of programming to enable me to write entire sets of exercises and drills with appropriate prompts, positive feedback, and many other usual computer program "accouterments." I have listed below (see Figure 1) an example of a very simple program that could be used, with slight modification, on any computer to write various types of verbs and vocabulary drills, substitution exercises, etc. Anyone who is interested in computer usage in the classroom, even if he knows absolutely nothing about programming, could with a little experimentation adapt it for his own use. One could even enlist the aid of a computer whiz in class, or a computer aficionado among colleagues, even in another discipline, who would probably welcome the chance to help someone else get started in this direction. There are also available now very useful programming aids, known as “authoring languages” and “authoring systems,” which enable instructors with little or no computer experience to begin writing drills, exercises, even complete lessons, after only a moderate amount of practice.

```
010    READ A$,B$

020    IF A$=“FIN” THEN GOTO 100

030    PRINT A$

040    INPUT C$

050    IF C$=B$ THEN GOTO 80

060    PRINT “INCORRECT”

070    GOTO 10

080    PRINT “CORRECT”

090    GOTO 10

100    STOP <or END>

110    DATA “Il ... entré.”,“est”

120    DATA “Nous ... changé.”,“avons”

130    DATA “Elles ... arrivées.”,“sont”

...    ... ...

...    ... ...   <other DATA lines>

...    ... ...

...    DATA “FIN”,“xxx”  <final DATA line>
```

Figure 1
Simple Verb Drill Program
(Passé Composé)

After a few weeks of experimentation with my grammar programs, I developed several sets of exercises and drills on the past tense and the subjunctive mood. These were then put on 5-1/4 inch floppy disks. After we had discussed the grammar points in class, students could then go, at a time convenient to their schedule, to the microcomputer lab where there are over twenty IBM Personal Computers at their disposal, check out a disk and begin work. Let me reiterate that this exercise disk was not used to *present* the grammatical concept to the class. Students had access to the disk only after my regular classroom presentation so that it would reinforce the exercises and drills previously performed in class. For the disk, I actually used, with slight modification, some of the exercises taken directly from the textbook.

Student response to this new instructional technique was overwhelmingly positive. Students were continually asking me to "put on" new exercises for them to complete. Of course, some of this enthusiasm must be attributed to the "newness" of the idea and the general attraction that computers hold for the younger generation. However, many students had never had before what is called a "hands-on" experience with the computer, so there was even a double benefit involved here.

Even much later, several students in this class told me that they performed much better in a more advanced class when they got to the units where they had done exercises on the computer, because they remembered specific rules and structures that were reinforced by these drills. It is my plan to continue the implementation and further development of computer-assisted instruction, or more descriptively, computer-complemented instruction, in my courses at Auburn University. As one comes to realize upon beginning to investigate computer usage in academic settings, it is certainly true that "the sky is the limit." There are more and more sophisticated systems becoming available every day using recorded tapes so that pronunciation and spoken responses can be evaluated, even corrected by the computer. (See Geoffrey R. Hope, Heimy F. Taylor, and James P. Pusack, *Using Computers in Teaching Foreign Language* [New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1984].)

State-of-the-art technology offers a system that uses video disc players or videotape recorders to coordinate sight and sound into a realistic visit to a foreign country, complete with a guided tour by a native speaker. One such program is "Montevidisco" developed at Brigham Young University. Of course, most high school and college budgets preclude such ventures into high technology, but perhaps as the value of these applications to foreign-language learning becomes more well known, grants from private and public sources will be forthcoming for their implementation.

In conclusion, while the activities mentioned above have just "scratched the surface" of computer usage in the classroom, and while some colleagues have far surpassed my initial efforts in this direction, it should be noted that these machines can be used as well for other activities related to teaching duties. They can take much of the drudgery out of administrative "busy work," such as keeping attendance and homework completion records up to date, recording scores, and even, within the more traditional role associated with the computer, calculating final averages. On the academic side, computers can be used to *present* new material to students so that the more gifted ones can proceed at their own pace without being held back by others. But lest the fear of "early retirement" for all *human* teaching machines rear its ugly head, all of us in our profession should be reminded that with the advent of the microcomputer and concomitant computer-assisted instruction programs, many experts, perhaps some of the same recalcitrant ones that heralded the arrival of the teaching machines, began proclaimint the impending "Twilight of the Gods" for the classroom teacher. But this just has not happened. Why not? The answer is really quite simple. Until the computer manufacturers can program a computer to interact emotionally with a student, who, after hours and hours of hard work and effort, reaches heights of success never thought possible, or shed tears of desperation when another student, after the same painful struggle, fails miserably—until they can make a computer to do that, we have nothing to worry about. Realizing this, then, we can all view the computer as neither "mogwai" nor gremlin, but just a helpful tool with no more threat to our existence than the chalk and blackboard that we use every day.

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